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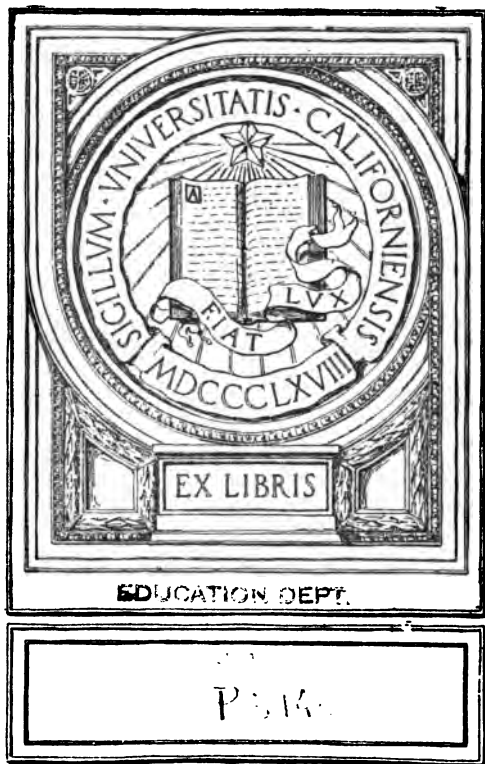


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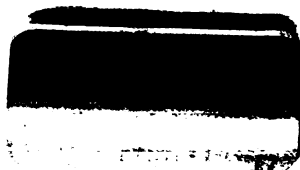
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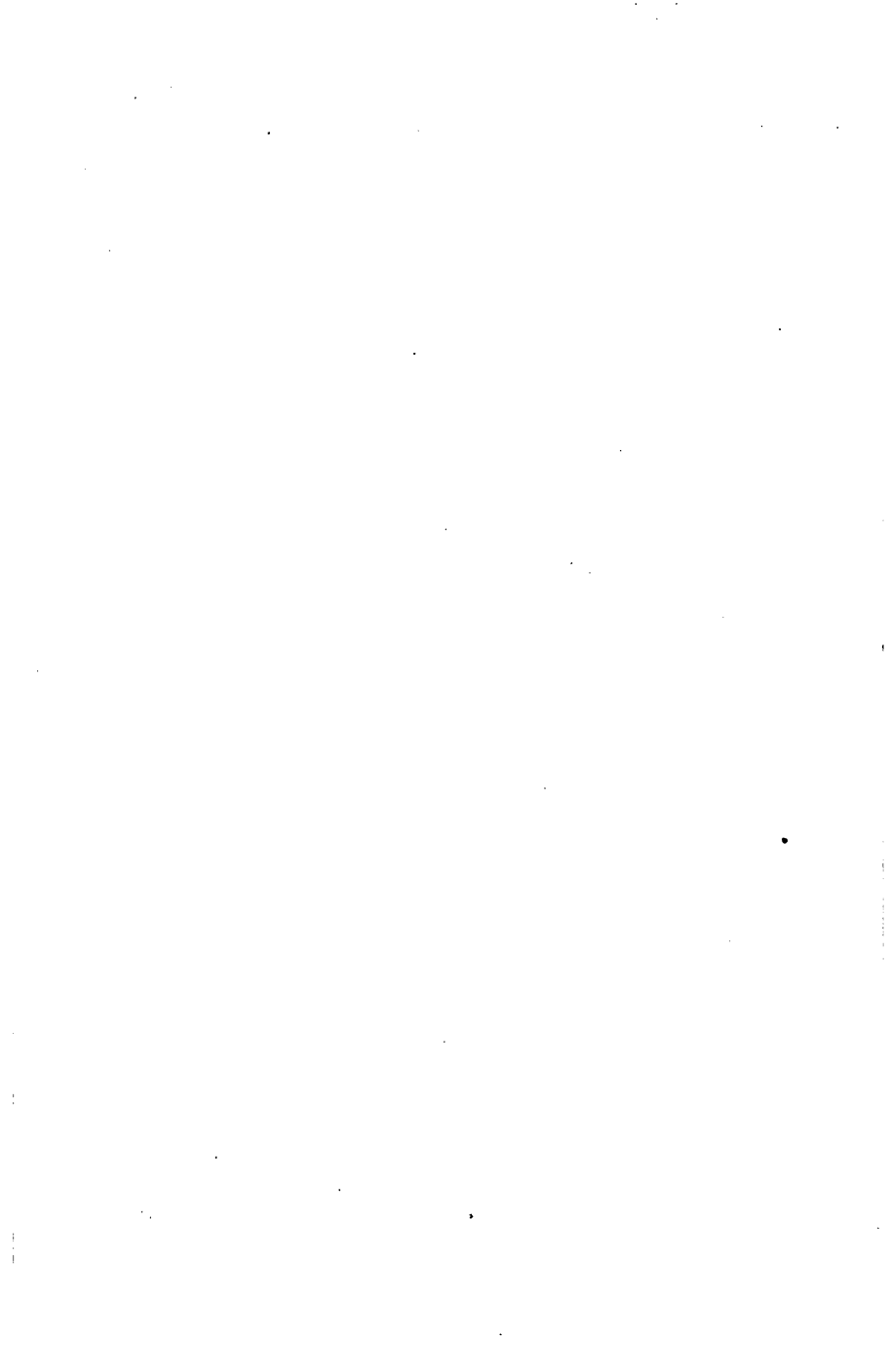
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LIPPINCOTT'S LANGUAGE SERIES

UNIV. OF
CALIFORNIA

LESSONS IN GRAMMAR

FOR SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS' INSTITUTES

BY

J. N. PATRICK, A.M.

AUTHOR OF LESSONS IN LANGUAGE, PSYCHOLOGY FOR
TEACHERS, AND LIGHT ON THE ROAD.

Inaccurate writing is generally the expression of inaccurate thinking.

Richard Grant White.

PHILADELPHIA

J. B. LIPPINCOTT COMPANY

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EDUCATION DEPT.

PREFACE.

SCOPE. The purpose of this book is to present the essential facts of English grammar clearly and concisely. The author has endeavored to avoid technical distinctions and discussions that can only baffle and discourage pupils in the grammar grades. No space has been used in making mysterious the simple grammatical facts of our almost grammarless tongue.

VOLUMINOUS TEXT-BOOKS. Many of the text-books on English used in the grammar grades are so voluminous that they discourage the pupil. The modern school grammar, containing three or four hundred pages of learned comment, cannot but embarrass both teacher and pupil. The pupil leaves school with his head full of crude impressions of the structure of the sentence, but without the ability to express his thoughts clearly and concisely.

ONE THING AT A TIME. No attempt has been made to teach literature and grammar at the same time. Every attempt to teach both subjects in the same lesson has been a failure and will ever remain a failure in the grammar grades. The method is opposed by every known law of mind.

TOPICAL METHOD. The plan of the book is so obvious that teachers will discover it at once. It is a departure from the stereotyped past. It substitutes the topical plan of presenting a subject for the usual sprinklings of a subject throughout the book. It is believed that the method will awaken in the pupil a deep interest in the study of grammar. He is required to think grammatical facts and forms into original sentences. Formal recitations of definitions and rules do not interest pupils. The object sought in the study of grammar is facility in the use of language; not a memory crammed with definitions and rules.

SENTENCE-MAKING. These exercises are a marked feature. They require the pupil to use his memory facts. Theory without practice avails little or nothing in the study of English. As the mind has only what it does, correct forms of expression become habit only by the use of them. The exercises make it easy for the teacher to convert what is usually an irksome study into a pleasant one.

The author does not claim that *Lessons in Grammar* is a perfect text-book. To the over-technical, he fraternally commends the following lines from Carlyle:

“The ‘critic fly,’ if it do but alight on any plinth or single cornice of a brave stately building, shall be able to declare, with its half-inch vision, that here is a speck, and there an inequality; that, in fact, this and the other individual stone are nowise as they should be; for all this the ‘critic fly’ will be sufficient: but to take in the fair relations of the Whole, to see the building as one object, to estimate its purpose, the adjustment of its parts, and their harmonious coöperation towards that purpose, will require the eye of a Vitruvius or a Palladio.”

This book is divided into two parts. Part I. is designed for use in the seventh grade of graded schools, and during the seventh year of ungraded schools. Part II., for use in the eighth grade of graded schools and in the eighth year of ungraded schools.

The method of presenting the subject especially adapts the book to review work in county institutes and summer schools.

LESSONS IN LANGUAGE, the elementary book of this two-book series, is designed for use in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades or years.

J. N. P.

St. Louis Mo., July, 1897.

CONTENTS.

LESSON	PART FIRST.	PAGE
I.	The Sentence — Use, Structure	7
II.	Grammatical Terms — General View	11
III.	Phrases	14
IV.	Clauses	17
V.	Nouns	20
VI.	Parsing Nouns	24
VII.	Pronouns	26
VIII.	Relative Pronouns	28
IX.	Parsing Pronouns	33
X.	Adjectives	35
XI.	Parsing Adjectives	38
XII.	Verbs	39
XIII.	Copula — Complement	43
XIV.	Verbs and Verb Phrases	46
XV.	Verbals	48
XVI.	Mode — Tense	52
XVII.	Auxiliary Verbs	54
XVIII.	Conjugation	57
XIX.	Parsing Verbs	65
XX.	Adverbs	67
XXI.	Parsing Adverbs	71
XXII.	Prepositions	72
XXIII.	Conjunctions — Interjections	77
XXIV.	Varied Use of Words	80
XXV.	Verbals — Participles and Infinitives	83

LESSON	PAGE
xxvi. Verbals — Infinitives	87
xxvii. Phrases — Clauses	93
xxviii. The Sentence — Principal Elements	99
xxix. The Sentence — Drill on Classification	103
xxx. The Sentence — Analysis	107
xxxi. Sentences for Analysis	112
xxxii. Parsing — Peculiar Constructions	118

PART SECOND.

i. Transformation of Sentences	121
ii. The Sentence — Order	128
iii. Capitalization — Punctuation	135
iv. Rules of Syntax	141
v. Exercise on Rules of Syntax	146
vi. Letter Writing	151
vii. Composition	159
viii. Faulty Diction	165
ix. The Memory of George Washington	185
Self-Reliance	185
x. Victory in Defeat	186
xi. Books — Grandfather's Chair	188
xii. The Bible	190
xiii. The Garret of the Gambrel-Roofed House	191
xiv. The Van Tassel House	192
xv. The Flower of Liberty	194
xvi. The Blue Jays	196
xvii. Love of Country and of Home	197
xviii. Learn to Do Something Well [Citizens	199
xix. Birthday of Washington — Duties of American	203
Review 205	Appendix 219
Index	229

PART FIRST.

LESSON I.

THE SENTENCE. USE—STRUCTURE.

A **sentence** is a group of words expressing a thought.

Every sentence consists of two parts—subject and predicate.

The **subject** of a sentence is the part of the sentence about which something is said; as,

Right prevails.

A contented mind is a perpetual feast.

The **predicate** of a sentence is the part of the sentence that expresses what is said about the subject; as,

Right prevails.

A contented mind is a perpetual feast.

KINDS OF SENTENCES.

(I.) WITH REGARD TO USE.

According to the way sentences are used, they are classified as declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory.

A **declarative sentence** is one that declares or tells something; as,

The soul is immortal.

Art is long, and time is fleeting.

The great object of all our education is to fit the individual to combine with his fellow man.

If there is any thing at which education should aim, it is equipping a man for the battle of life.

An **interrogative sentence** is one that asks a question; as,

Shall not the Judge of all the earth do right?

What shall it profit a man if he gain the whole world and lose his own soul?

An **imperative sentence** is one that expresses a request or a command; as,

Stay, you that bear the corse, and set it down.

Get me some poison, Iago, this night.

An **exclamatory sentence** is one that expresses emotion or surprise; as,

How like a fawning publican he looks!

How unsearchable are his judgments, and his ways past finding out!

NOTE.—A declarative, an interrogative, or an imperative sentence may express emotion or surprise.

(II.) WITH REGARD TO STRUCTURE.

According to their structure, sentences are classified as simple, complex, and compound.

A **simple sentence** is one that contains but one assertion; as,

Perseverance keeps honor bright.

Earth with her thousand voices praises God.

Providence has balanced peculiar sufferings with peculiar enjoyments.

NOTE.—The simple sentence is the unit of expression. All other sentences are but combinations of the simple sentence.

A **complex sentence** is one that contains one principal assertion and one or more subordinate assertions; as,

The man, *who called*, is my brother.

What cannot be cured must be endured.

Many suppose *that the planets are inhabited*.

The belief is *that the soul is immortal*.

If we walk, if we talk, if we even lift a finger, we help to wear out our bodies.

The men *who succeed and who are honored in their success* are honest, industrious men.

NOTE.—The clause which makes a sentence complex does the work of a *noun*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb*.

A **compound sentence** is one that contains two or more coördinate assertions; as,

Govern your passions, or they will govern you.

Trust men, and they will be true to you; treat them greatly, and they will show themselves great.

The hearts of men are their books; events are their tutors; great actions are their eloquence.

NOTE.—The sentences that are joined by coördinate conjunctions to form compound sentences are called members.

A *compound sentence* may be made by joining together complex sentences instead of simple ones. Such a sentence is called a compound-complex sentence; as,

He that observeth the wind shall not sow; and he that regardeth the clouds shall not reap.

If thou be wise, thou shalt be wise for thyself; but if thou scornest, thou alone shalt bear it.

TO THE TEACHER: Insist upon thoughtful illustrations. Exact and accept only such illustrative sentences, original and quoted, as show a careful preparation of the lesson on the part of the class. Teachers should ever bear in mind the fact that there is nothing inspiring or lasting in merely formal recitations.

The aim is to make these exercises interesting and profitable by omitting detail, and presenting only points of general importance. They compel thought, but do not tax the memory. A grammatical relation applied in the construction of original sentences will be remembered long after technical terms are forgotten. The use of language should accompany the study of its structure. The exercises are a complete review of the text, and should be made topics for real language lessons—oral and written.

In every recitation, the best illustrations should be written upon the blackboard for the inspection of the class, as theory without practice is almost valueless. Mere memory-work leads pupils to believe that they have learned more than they really know; for, without much practice, principles lie in the memory as dead statements. We do not study grammar merely to learn to parse words and analyze sentences, but to learn to express thought clearly and logically. Good language becomes a habit only through a persistent and systematic use of it.

1. In what does a simple sentence differ from a complex sentence?

2. In what does a complex sentence differ from a compound sentence?

3. In what respect does a compound sentence differ from a simple sentence?

4. In what respect does a declarative sentence differ from an exclamatory sentence?

5. In what respect does an interrogative sentence differ from an imperative sentence?

6. Compose three simple sentences.

7. Compose three complex sentences.

8. Compose three compound sentences.

9. Compose three compound-complex sentences.

10. Connect the two members of a compound sentence with *and*.

11. Connect the two members of a compound sentence with *but*.

LESSON II.

GRAMMATICAL TERMS — GENERAL VIEW.

As the sentence is the unit of expression, a knowledge of its structure is essential to a clear expression of thought.

A **grammatical term** is a word, or a group of related words, that performs a distinct office in the structure of a sentence.

There are four principal grammatical terms: noun-terms, adjective-terms, verb-terms, and adverb-terms.

NOUN-TERMS.

A **noun** is a word used as a name. A **noun-term** is a word, or group of related words, that does the work of a noun. In form it may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*; as,

God is love. Helping others helps ourselves.

To save time is to lengthen life. That music hath charms is true.

He replied, I have recited. My home is wherever I am happy.

You err in that you think so. He, believing that his father would assist him, continued his investigations. It is encouraging to know that a man can elevate his life by conscious effort.

ADJECTIVE-TERMS.

An **adjective** is a word used to limit the meaning of a noun. An **adjective-term** is a word, or group of related

words, that does the work of an adjective. In form it may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*; as,

Good boys are obedient. Men of culture may be happy.
An adjective clause is one *that describes or limits a substantive.*
Other men are lenses through which we read our own minds.
Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.

VERB-TERMS.

A **verb** is a word used to assert something of a person or a thing. A **verb-term** is a word, or group of related words, that does the work of a verb. In form it may be a single *word*, or a *verb-phrase*; as,

He is. Flowers bloom. He should have been rewarded.

ADVERB-TERMS.

An **adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. An **adverb-term** is a word, or group of related words, that does the work of an adverb. In form it may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*; as,

He came early. We will return in the morning.
He came when you called him.
She lies where first the sunbeams fall.

NOTES.—I. The sum is this: The noun-term, the adjective-term, and the adverb-term have only three forms each—the word-form, the phrase-form, and the clause-form. In each form, the term does the work of a single part of speech.

II. Any word, phrase, clause, mark, or symbol, which may be made the subject of a verb, or the object of a verb, a participle, an infinitive, a preposition, or the substantive complement of a copulative verb, is a noun-term. It is an object conception and is grasped by the mind as an entirety.

III. Whatever describes or limits a noun or a pronoun is an adjective-term. It is a quality conception in distinction from an object conception. The

adjective-term, like the noun-term, is regarded by the mind as one descriptive or limiting term.

IV. Whatever modifies a verb, a verb-phrase, an adjective, or an adverb is an adverb-term. The mind grasps it as a single term.

V. The verb-term is always a verb, or some other part of speech used as a verb. If the verb is completed by a noun (telling what the subject is), or by an adjective (describing the subject), the noun-term or the adjective-term thus used is the true predicate.

VI. The word-form of a grammatical term is a single word.

VII. The phrase-form of a grammatical term consists of a preposition or a participle combined with a significant word or group of related words used as a single part of speech. The phrase-form of a grammatical term is always a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

VIII. The clause-form of a grammatical term is a dependent sentence. It does the work of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

EXERCISE.

1. In each of three sentences, use a different form of the noun-term as the subject of a verb.

2. In each of three sentences, use a different form of the noun-term as the object of a verb.

3. In each of three sentences, use a different form of the noun-term as the complement of a copulative verb.

4. In each of three sentences, use a different form of the adjective-term to limit the subject of a verb.

5. In each of three sentences, use a different form of the adjective-term to limit the object of a verb.

6. In each of three sentences, use a different form of the adjective-term to limit the complement of a copulative verb.

7. In each of three sentences, use a different form of the adverb-term to modify the predicate verb.

8. Write a sentence containing the three forms of the adjective-term.

9. Write a sentence containing the three forms of the adverb-term.

LESSON III.

PHRASES.

A **phrase** is a group of related words *not* containing subject and predicate and doing the work of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

According to their uses, phrases are classified as substantive, adjective, and adverbial.

A **substantive phrase** is one that does the work of a noun; as,

To do right is a duty.

My purpose is *to finish the work*.

Gaining victory from defeat strengthens us.

An **adjective phrase** is one that does the work of an adjective; as,

The laws *of nature* are the thoughts *of God*.

He has a library *filled with rare books*.

A ship *gliding over the water* is a beautiful sight.

An **adverbial phrase** is one that does the work of an adverb; as,

The birds will return *in the spring*.

I shall be very glad *to assist you*.

Phrases are also distinguished with regard to form, as prepositional, participial, or infinitive.

A **prepositional phrase** consists of a preposition and its object; as,

The children *in the grove* are happy. He came *in the morning*.

NOTES.—I. A prepositional phrase may do the work of an adjective or an adverb.

II. A prepositional phrase may be grammatically independent; as,

At all events, the great men of prophecy had not appeared.

An **infinitive phrase** is one introduced by *to* followed by a verb; as,

To love is to live. *To launch the boat* was a long task.

NOTE.—An infinitive phrase may do the work of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

A **participial phrase** is one introduced by a participle, and doing the work of an adjective; as,

Forsaken by his friends, he was defeated.

Truth, *crushed to earth*, will rise again.

Cæsar, *having arrived*, decided to cross the Rhine.

Phrases are also distinguished as simple, complex, compound, independent, and idiomatic.

A **simple phrase** is a single, unmodified phrase; as,

He came *to town* yesterday.

A **complex phrase** is a modified phrase; as,

It is easy *to find reasons why others should be patient*.

A **compound phrase** is composed of two or more phrases of equal rank joined by a conjunction; as,

We should strive *to do good* and *to help others*.

A **phrase** may be wholly independent in meaning and grammar; as,

Truth to say, he was a conscientious man.

To make a long story short, the company broke up.

This case excepted, the French have the keenest possible sense of every thing ludicrous in posing.

An idiomatic phrase is one peculiar to a language; as,

As yet, by far, at last, at first, at present, at random, by the by, out and out, side by side, hand to hand, through and through, year by year, etc.

NOTES. — I. Our language abounds in idiomatic phrases. The relation of an idiomatic phrase to the sentence in which it is used is logical, not grammatical. Good usage determines the propriety of many expressions that cannot be assigned definite grammatical relations.

II. Phrases do the work of single words, hence they should be regarded as parts of speech. There is no law of mind or of language which requires that they should be torn to pieces, or separated into "leader," "subsequent," and "adjuncts."

EXERCISE.

1. Write sentences, using in each a substantive phrase: (1) as the subject of a sentence; (2) as the object of a verb; (3) as the complement of a copulative verb; (4) as the object of a preposition.

2. Write sentences, using in each an adjective phrase: (1) to limit the subject of a verb; (2) to limit the object of a verb; (3) to limit the complement of a copulative verb; (4) to limit a noun in another phrase.

3. Write sentences, using in each an adverbial phrase: (1) to modify a single verb; (2) to modify a verb-phrase; (3) to modify an adjective complement.

4. Write a sentence containing two adjective phrases; one containing two adverbial phrases.

5. Use a prepositional phrase: (1) as an adjective; (2) as an adverb.

6. Use an infinitive phrase: (1) as a noun; (2) as an adjective; (3) as an adverb.

7. In each of three sentences, use a phrase which is wholly independent.

8. In each of five sentences, use a different idiomatic phrase and explain the meaning of each one.

LESSON IV.

CLAUSES.

A **clause** is a group of words containing subject and predicate and doing the work of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

NOTE. — A clause takes its name from the kind of work it does in the sentence.

According to their uses, clauses are classified as substantive, adjective, and adverbial.

A **substantive clause** is one that does the work of a noun; as,

That might makes right is untrue.

Do you see *how the leaves have turned*.

The belief of most men is *that the soul is immortal*.

He hath heard *that men of few words are the best men*.

NOTE. — A substantive clause when used as the subject of a verb, the object of a verb, or the complement of a copulative verb, is dependent on the rest of the sentence for its meaning.

An **adjective clause** is one that does the work of an adjective; as,

The boy *who was here* is my son.

I know something *which I wish to tell you*.

He dreamed of the place *where as a youth he played*.

How poor are they *that have not patience*.

An **adverbial clause** is one that does the work of an adverb; as,

He left *before you returned*. The criminal died *as he had lived*.

Whither I go, ye cannot come. I am delighted *that you came*.

Wherever the sentiment of right comes in, it takes precedence over everything else.

NOTE.—Clauses, like phrases, do the work of single words, hence they should be regarded as parts of speech.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

NOTE.—On account of its extent and frequent use, the adverbial clause merits special notice. An absolute classification cannot be made, as the clauses shade into one another in meaning. It is believed, however, that the classification here given is sufficiently critical for all practical purposes.

An *adverbial clause* may denote:

1. Time; as,

Work *while it is yet day*.

Rich gifts wax poor *when givers prove unkind*.

And death, *whenever he comes to me*

Shall come on the wild unbounded sea.

2. Place; as,

He was welcome *wherever he went*.

Wheresoever the carcass is, the buzzards are.

There, *where a few torn shrubs the place disclose*,

The village preacher's modest mansion rose.

3. Manner; as,

As is the teacher, so is the school.

He worked *as if his life depended upon it*.

As the sun breaks through the darkest clouds,

So honor peereth in the meanest habit.

4. Degree; as,

We rise in glory *as we sink in pride.*
They all became wiser *than they were.*
Heat not a furnace for your foe so hot
That it do singe yourself.

5. Cause; as,

He is studious *for he knows his lessons.*
I will read the book *since you recommend it.*
Immodest words admit of no defense,
For want of decency is want of sense.

6. Result or Purpose; as,

He behaved so badly *that he was expelled.*
Language was given us *in order that we might express our thoughts.*
The general so likes your music *that he desires you to make no more noise with it.*

EXERCISE.

1. Write sentences, using in each a substantive clause: (1) as subject of a verb; (2) as object of a verb; (3) as the complement of a copulative verb; (4) as the object of a preposition; (5) as the object of a participle; (6) as the object of an infinitive; (7) as an appositive.

2. Write sentences, using in each an adjective clause: (1) to limit the subject of a verb; (2) to limit the object of a verb; (3) to limit the complement of a verb; (4) to limit a noun in any other position in a sentence.

3. Write sentences, using in each an adverbial clause: (1) to denote time; (2) to denote place; (3) to denote manner; (4) to denote degree; (5) to denote condition; (6) to denote cause; (7) to denote purpose.

LESSON V.

NOUNS.

A **noun** is the name of anything.

Nouns are divided into two great classes — proper and common.

A **proper noun** is the name of an individual object; as, St. Louis, January, Henry W. Longfellow, Alps Mountains.

A **common noun** is a name that applies to every individual of a class of objects; as,

Boy, chair, tree, man, woman, river, mountain.

Common nouns include collective nouns and abstract nouns.

A **collective noun** is one that, in the singular form, denotes more than one object; as,

Class, committee, congregation, flock, army.

An **abstract noun** is one that denotes a quality considered apart from the object to which it belongs; as,

Truth, goodness, sweetness, mercy, beauty, pity.

NOTE. — Most abstract nouns are formed from adjectives; as,

Good, goodness; wise, wisdom; prudent, prudence; red, redness.

Some abstract nouns are formed from common nouns; as,

Peerage *from* peer; childhood *from* child; mastery *from* master.

Many abstract nouns are formed from verbs ; as,

Protect, protection ; move, motion ; reflect, reflection.

The names of actions, such as *dancing, roaring, to love, to be* are called verbal nouns.

To nouns belong *person, number, gender* and *case*.

Nouns are of the *first*, the *second*, or the *third* person ; of the *singular* or the *plural* number ; of the *masculine* or the *feminine* gender ; in the *nominative*, the *objective*, the *possessive*, or the *independent* case.

PECULIAR USES OF NOUNS.

A word has a *peculiar use* when it varies, in construction, from its usual *classification, meaning, or relation*.

1. A *noun* so related to a verb as to show *to* whom or *for* whom an act was performed is called an *indirect object* ; as,

I gave my *friend* a book. He paid the *men* their wages.

He made the *captain* a coat. Find *Mary* a better pen.

NOTE.—A noun used to show to whom or for whom an act was performed is equivalent to the objective after *to* or *for*.

2. A *noun* so related to the object of a verb as to describe it, is called an *objective attribute* ; as,

They chose her *queen*. They elected her *teacher*.

They call the Emperor *father*. The boys call him a *coward*.

3. A *noun* used like an adverb to denote *time, distance, value, weight, etc.*, is called an *adverbial objective* ; as,

He sat an *hour*. She walked a *mile*.

The fish was worth a *dollar*. The hay weighed a *ton*.

4. A *noun* used with a participle and known as the *nominative absolute* is always the subject of an abridged adverbial clause; as,

The *war* being over, the army was disbanded — When the war was over, the army was disbanded.

The *storm* having ceased, we started — When the storm had ceased, we started.

5. A *noun* used as the object of an intransitive verb is called a *cognate object*; as,

He *ran* a race. She *dreamed* a dream. He *looked* a last look.

6. A *noun* or *pronoun* used to *explain* or *identify* another noun or pronoun is put by apposition in the same case; as,

Peter, the *hermit*.

The patriarch *Abraham* was accounted faithful.

William, the *Conqueror*, defeated Harold, the Saxon *king*.

James, the royal Scottish *poet*, was imprisoned in Windsor Castle.

NOTE. — The explanatory noun or pronoun must denote the *same* person or thing it explains or identifies. A noun or a pronoun in apposition with another noun or pronoun is usually the equivalent of an adjective clause; as,

Peter, *who was a hermit*. William, *who was Conqueror*.

NOTE. — A noun may be in apposition with a sentence, and a sentence with a noun; as,

You write carelessly — a *habit* you must correct.

The maxim, *enough is as good as a feast*, has silenced many a vain wish.

A part may be in apposition with the whole; as,

The whole army fled, *some* one way, *some* another.

In this sentence, *some* is in apposition with army.

EXERCISE.

1. Use three common nouns as subjects of verbs.
2. Use three proper nouns as subjects of verbs.
3. In each of three sentences, use a different collective noun.
4. In each of three sentences, use a different abstract noun.
5. State concisely the difference between a collective noun and an abstract noun.
6. In each of three sentences, use a noun as a cognate object.
7. In each of three sentences, use a noun to modify the object of a verb.
8. Use a noun to show to whom an act was performed.
9. Use a noun to show for whom an act was performed.
10. In each of two sentences, use a noun in apposition with the subject of a verb.
11. In each of two sentences, use a noun in the nominative case, absolute.
12. Derive five abstract nouns from adjectives.
13. Derive three abstract nouns from common nouns.
14. Derive five abstract nouns from verbs.
15. Form an abstract noun from each of the following adjectives:

good	stupid	bold	innocent
black	pure	dark	temperate
noble	wide	prudent	just
honest	true	patient	distant

16. Form an abstract noun from each of the following verbs:
- | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| serve | protect | believe | conceal |
| choose | invent | deceive | judge |
| relieve | move | advise | read |
| elect | reflect | defend | please |
17. Form an abstract noun from each of the following common nouns:
- | | | | |
|---------|--------|--------|-------|
| friend | bond | hero | man |
| leader | child | thief | peer |
| captain | martyr | rascal | mayor |

LESSON VI.

PARSING.

Parsing a word is giving a complete description of it as it is used in the sentence.

TO THE TEACHER: Drills in parsing should be more than formal recitations. They should train pupils in the correct and economic use of words. The use of language, good or bad, is a growth. Teachers should ever be on the alert in regard to the language used by their pupils in the recitation.

Accuracy of expression depends upon clearness of thought. The time to correct a pupil's speech is when it needs correcting. The only cure for the use of bad English is revision until the incorrect statement or illustration is changed into a clean, concise statement. Teachers should constantly bear in mind the fact that one lesson in the reflective use of words in the expression of original thought is worth to the pupil many text-book recitations of grammatical facts.

NOUNS.

In parsing a noun tell:

1. The *class* to which it belongs.
2. The *person, gender* (if a gender noun), *number, and case*.
3. The *use* in the sentence.

EXERCISE.

Parse the *nouns* in the following sentences:

1. Cowards die many times before their death.
2. In the lexicon of youth there is no such word as fail.
3. No noble thought, however buried in the dust of ages, can ever come to naught.

4. Our greatest glory is not in never falling, but in rising every time we fall.

5. The lightest wave of influence, set in motion, extends and widens to the eternal shore.

6. Many people know the value of a dollar who do not appreciate the value of one hundred cents.

7. The warbling of birds, the murmuring of streams, the coolness of woods, the fragrance of flowers, contribute greatly to the pleasures of the mind.

8. Industry is the demand of nature, of reason, and of God.

9. James was declared a mortal and bloody enemy, a tyrant, a murderer, and a usurper.

10. Herodotus is called the Father of History.

11. In Thackeray's characters we see our own faults reflected; in Dickens', we see our neighbors'.

12. The jury has rendered a just verdict.

13. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul!

14. Books give to all who will faithfully use them, the society, the spiritual presence, of the best and greatest of our race.

15. The door-step to the temple of wisdom is a knowledge of our own ignorance.

16. America, our proud and happy home, we love thee!

17. He walked a mile, then waited an hour.

18. The heights by great men reached and kept,

Were not attained by sudden flight;

But they, while their companions slept,

Were toiling upward in the night.

19. It is the greatest courage to be able to bear the imputation of the want of courage.

20. We live in deeds, not years; in thoughts, not breaths; in feelings, not in figures on a dial.

21. The wit whose vivacity condemns slower tongues to silence, the scholar whose knowledge allows no man to fancy that he instructs him, the critic who suffers no fallacy to pass undetected, and the reasoner who condemns the idle to thought and the negligent to attention, are generally praised and feared, revered and avoided.

LESSON VII.

PRONOUNS.

A **pronoun** is a word that *stands* for a noun.

Pronouns are divided into three principal classes — personal, relative, and interrogative.

NOTES.— I. Certain limiting adjectives may take the place of nouns; as, This, that, these, those, each, all, etc.

II. Any qualifying adjective preceded by an article may stand for a noun; as, The *good*, the *wise*, the *prudent*, the *virtuous*.

III. In all such uses, a noun is properly understood. They are adjectives used as nouns.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

A **personal pronoun** is one that stands for a noun and shows by its form whether it is of the *first*, the *second*, or the *third* person.

The *simple personal pronouns* are: *I*, *thou*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*.

The *compound personal pronouns* are: *myself*, *thyself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*.

NOTES.— I. *Each* is a distributive pronoun used either with or without a following noun. It denotes every one of the individuals composing a whole, considered separately from the rest; as,

Each man received his fee.

Each of the members of the church contributed his part.

II. *Each other* and *one another* are compound pronouns. They may be separated into two adjective pronouns; as,

We violated our reverence *each* for the *other's* soul.

III. Usually they are considered as one pronoun; as,

Mutually giving and receiving aid,

They set *each other* off, like light and shade.

They led *one another*, as it were, into a high pavilion of their thoughts.

IV. Personal pronouns have fixed forms for their different uses—person-forms, number-forms, gender-forms, and case-forms—a distinct form for each person; *I* for the first person; *thou* or *you* for the second person; *he*, *she* or *it* for the third person.

It. The personal pronoun *it* has a variety of special uses.

1. *It* is very often used as the grammatical subject, to stand for the real, logical subject which follows the verb; as,

It is a duty to love humanity.

It is easy in the world to live after the world's opinion.

It is a pity that he has so much learning, or that he has not a great deal more.

2. *It* is used as an impersonal subject, not as standing for any real actor, but as helping to signify that a certain condition or action exists; as,

It is dark. *It* rains. *It* strikes seven.

For when *it* dawned, they dropped their arms.

It is finger-cold, and prudent farmers get in their barreled apples.

3. *It* is used as an impersonal or indefinite object of a verb or a preposition; as,

I made up my mind to foot *it*.

The lad teems *it*, farms *it*, peddles *it*.

There was nothing for *it* but to return.

An editor has only to say "declined," and there is an end of *it*.

LESSON VIII.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

A **relative pronoun** is one used to represent a preceding noun or pronoun, called the antecedent, and to connect with it a clause; as,

The pupil *who* studies will learn.

He *that* getteth wisdom loveth his own soul.

I have many things *which* I want to tell you.

And there was such a resemblance *as* the crowd had testified.

SIMPLE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

The **simple relative pronouns** are: *who, which, that, as*.

Who is used to represent persons; *which* to represent things; *that* and *as* to represent both *persons* and *things*.

The antecedent of a relative pronoun is the *word, phrase, or clause* for which the pronoun stands. It is the leading term of relation, the relative clause being the subsequent term.

The antecedent of a relative pronoun is not always a word. It may be a *phrase* or a *sentence*; as,

He did not come, *which* I greatly regret.

His love extends from the richest to the poorest, *which* includes all.

NOTES.—I. A relative word may represent a dependent clause; as,

He has been gone all day, no one knows *where* [where he has been].

One of you must give way, I do not care *which* [which gives way].

He is angry, but I do not know *why* [why he is angry].

II. *That*, whether relative pronoun or conjunction, is often omitted; as,

It is strange they do not come. We saw he was there.

Here is the book you were looking for.

III. A dependent clause is often condensed into a phrase; as,

It is important if true [if it is true].

She is as handsome *as ever* [as ever she was].

The river is smooth *where* [it is] *deep*.

He is larger *than* [he was large] *a year ago*.

IV. In analyzing and parsing an abbreviated expression, supply the missing word or words.

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

The compound relative pronouns are: *what*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, and *whichever*. These are formed from the simple relatives by adding the adverbs *ever*, *so*, *soever*.

What does not have an antecedent actually expressed in the sentence. It contains within itself both antecedent and relative, being equivalent to *that which*; as,

What [that which] you say is true. I saw *what* [that which] he was doing.

Whatever and *whatsoever* belong, as adjectives, to an indefinite or definite object; as,

We are interested in *whatever* occupation you may follow (definite).

21. (Who) (whom) do they think he is?
22. Do you know (he) (him) (who) (whom) owns the house?
23. I saw (he) (him) (who) (whom) you spoke to.
24. I saw Mrs. Brown to-day, (she) (her) that was Mary Smith.
25. (Who) (whom) the court favors is safe.
26. Will you fight those (who) (whom) you know are right?
27. Is James as old as (I) (me)?
28. (They) (them) that seek wisdom will be wise.
29. None can go but (they) (them) (who) (whom) are called.
30. It being (she) (her) there was nothing more to be said.
31. Bring in ten sentences illustrating the uses of the simple personal pronouns.
32. Bring in sentences illustrating the uses of the compound personal pronouns.
33. In each of four sentences, use a different simple relative pronoun and point out the antecedent term of relation.
34. Use *what*: (1) as a relative; (2) as an interrogative adjective; (3) as an indefinite relative adjective.
35. Use the compound relative pronouns as adjectives.
36. What distinguishes a simple personal pronoun from a compound personal pronoun?
37. What distinguishes a simple relative pronoun from a compound relative pronoun?
38. Show that a clause introduced by *who* or *which* is coördinate rather than restrictive.
39. In each of three sentences, introduce a restrictive relative clause with *that*, and show that each clause limits and restricts the meaning of the antecedent.
40. In each of five sentences, use a different adjective pronoun, and show that each pronoun is capable of a double use.
41. Use the same adjective pronouns as adjectives.
42. Use *either*, *neither*, *any*, *none*, and *all* with verbs.
43. Use the compounds *somebody else*, *anyone else*, and *nobody else* in sentences, and parse them as *units*.
44. Use each of the compounds to denote possession.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Adjectives that are used in the place of the nouns which they limit are called *adjective pronouns*. An adjective pronoun represents a noun understood; as,

He asked *each* to give a penny. *Few* attended the lecture. *Many* went to the concert. *Some* may pass the examination.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

An **interrogative pronoun** is one used to ask a question; as,

Who comes here? *Which* of us does he seek? *What* does the child want?

EXERCISE.

Use the proper pronoun in each of the following examples:

1. I would act the same part if I were (he) (him)
2. They believe it is (I) (me).
3. They believe it to be (I) (me).
4. (Who) (whom) do you think it is?
5. (Who) (whom) do you suppose it to be?
6. No one but (he) (him) should be about the king.
7. It could not have been (she) (her).
8. (Who) (whom) did you say you met this morning?
9. I saw the man (who) (whom) they thought was dead.
10. I saw the man (who) (whom) they thought to be dead.
11. He is wiser than (I) (me), but I am older than (he) (him).
12. It is not for such as (we) (us) to sit with rulers.
13. (Who) (whom) do men say that I am?
14. Tell me (who) (whom) you are looking for.
15. (Who) (whom) do they think him to be?
16. We do not know (who) (whom) we serve.
17. I do not know (who) (whom) they serve.
18. (Who) (whom) did you say was at the concert?
19. (They) (them) that honor me I will honor.
20. Let (she) (her) and (I) (me) go.

17. He refused *what* was offered him.

MODEL.—*What* is a compound relative pronoun. It is equivalent to *that which*, *that* being the antecedent part and *which* the relative. *That* may be parsed as an adjective pronoun used as a noun, object of the verb *refused*. *Which* is a simple relative, subject of the verb *offered*.

18. By the light of these torches, parties of fugitives encountered one another, some hurrying towards the sea, others flying from the sea back to the land.

19. Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed.

20. Talent is that which is in a man's power; genius is that in whose power a man is.

21. There is no creature with which man has surrounded himself that seems so much like a product of civilization, so much like the result of development in special lines and in special fields, as the honey-bee.

22. What surprised me most was the sound of my own voice, which I had never before heard at a declamatory pitch, and which impressed me as belonging to some other person, who—and not myself—would be responsible for the speech: a prodigious consolation and encouragement under the circumstances.

NOTE.—Pupils should be thoroughly drilled in the use of pronouns. Many of the mistakes in writing and speaking occur in the use of pronouns. The mere recitation of the grammatical rules which govern their use will not fix the correct forms in the minds of pupils. Pupils should be required to use all the forms of pronouns in sentences, and tell why a certain form was used in preference to another form. In each case they should give the rule requiring the use of the correct form.

LESSON X.

ADJECTIVES.

An **adjective** is a word used to limit or qualify the meaning of a noun.

Adjectives are divided into two principal classes—limiting and qualifying.

A **limiting adjective** is one used to define or restrict the meaning of a noun without expressing any of its qualities; as,

This pen; many men; the house; five books; an apple.

NOTE.—The limiting adjectives, *a*, *an* and *the*, are sometimes called articles. The further subdivision of limiting adjectives is more bookish than useful.

A **qualifying adjective** is one that limits the application of a noun by denoting some quality or property of the noun; as,

A good man; a beautiful child; a yellow flower; a studious pupil; a running horse; a roaring sea.

Adjectives are compared to denote different degrees of quality. There are three degrees of quality—the positive, the comparative, the superlative.

The **positive degree** expresses a quality without comparison; as,

He is a righteous man. Thursday was a pleasant day.

The **comparative degree** expresses a higher or lower quality than the positive; as,

The sun is *larger* than the moon. The march was *less difficult* by night than by day.

The **superlative degree** expresses the highest or the lowest quality; as,

The dog is the *most faithful* of animals.

The miser is the *least esteemed* of men.

The comparative degree of most monosyllables is regularly formed by suffixing *r* or *er* to the positive, and the superlative by suffixing *st* or *est* to the positive.

The comparative of most adjectives of more than one syllable (sometimes of only one) is formed by prefixing *more* or *less*, and the superlative by prefixing *most* or *least*, to the positive; as,

Industrious, *more* industrious, *most* industrious; beautiful, *less* beautiful, *least* beautiful.

NOTE.—Adjectives derived from verbs are called participial adjectives. Adjectives derived from proper nouns are called proper adjectives. *What* and *which* when used to ask questions are called interrogative adjectives. The only adjectives that have a plural form are *this* and *that*; plural *these*, *those*. An adjective implying number, must agree in this respect with the substantive to which it relates.

SPECIAL USES OF ADJECTIVES.

1. An *adjective* joined to a verb that expresses *condition* or *motion* modifies both the subject and the predicate, and is called an *adverbial predicate adjective*; as,

He died *shouting*. He came *running*.

The sun shines *bright*. The tone rings *clear and full*.

2. An *adjective* joined to a verb in such a way as to qualify the direct object of the verb is called an *objective attribute*; as,

She wrung the clothes *dry*. He stretched the rope *tight*.
He painted the house *red*. He made the stick *straight*.

3. An *adjective* that follows the noun it describes is called an *appositive adjective*; as,

The enemy, *beaten*, fled. She, *dying*, gave it to me.
All poetry, *ancient* and *modern*, abounds in sentiment.

An *appositive adjective* is used like an *appositive noun*. It usually follows the noun, but not always; as,

Tired and *hungry*, he hastened home.
Young and *happy*, she took no heed of the morrow.

4. An *adjective* often does the work of a noun; as,
Choose the *true*, the *beautiful*, and the *good*.

5. An *adjective* may be used abstractly; as,
To be *successful* requires purpose, courage, and energy.

EXERCISE.

1. Name five limiting adjectives; five qualifying adjectives; five participial adjectives; five proper adjectives.

2. In each of five sentences, use a different adjective as a modifier of both the subject and the predicate.

3. In each of three sentences, join an adjective to a verb in such a way as to qualify the object of the verb.

4. In each of three sentences, use an adjective appositively.

LESSON XI.

ADJECTIVES.

In parsing an *adjective* tell :

1. The *class* to which it belongs.
 2. The *degree* of comparison.
 3. The *use* in the sentence.
1. The old house stood by the lindens.
 2. Jupiter is larger than the Earth.
 3. I feel bad early in the morning.
 4. He stands firm in his conviction.
 5. The French soldiers shot him dead.
 6. A great deal of talent is lost to the world for the want of a little courage.
 7. He planed the board smooth.
 8. Columbus had thought about this plan for many years, during which time he had vainly sought help from royal courts.
 9. We know what master laid thy keel,
 What workman wrought thy ribs of steel.
 10. The guillotine hushed the eloquent, struck down the powerful, and abolished the beautiful and the good.
 11. The whispering wind stirred weeping willow and moaning pine.
 12. The fleet, shattered and disabled, returned to Spain.
 13. Every seventh year was held sacred by the Jewish people.
 14. Whatever things were gain to him, those he counted loss.
 15. A beautiful behavior is better than a beautiful form; it gives a higher pleasure than statues and pictures; it is the finest of the fine arts.

LESSON XII.

VERBS.

A **verb** is a word that is used to assert something of a person or a thing.

COMPLETE AND INCOMPLETE VERBS.

Verbs may be classified as complete or incomplete.

A **complete verb** is one that does not require a complement to complete the predicate; as,

Anthracite coal *burns* slowly.

Knowledge *comes*, but wisdom *lingers*.

Golden fruits on laden branches *shine*.

An **incomplete verb** is one that requires a complement to complete the predicate; as,

Pain *teaches* patience. He *seems* very happy.

Cortes *was* a Spaniard. Character *gives* splendor to youth.

NOTE.—Verbs of incomplete predication must be followed by a noun-term or an adjective-term to make complete predicates.

TRANSITIVE, INTRANSITIVE, COPULATIVE, REGULAR, IRREGULAR, AND AUXILIARY VERBS.

A **transitive verb** is one that, in the active voice, requires an object to complete the predicate; as,

Time *brings* changes.

John *desires* to study Latin.

Columbus *believed* that the earth is round.

NOTE.—The object of a transitive verb is a dependent element—a modifier of the verb.

An **intransitive verb** is one that does not require an object to complete the predicate; as,

Our good deeds *live* after us.

Forty sails *shone* in the morning light.

On the snow the moonbeams *glistened*.

Verbs that are usually intransitive are sometimes used transitively; as,

He *speaks* slowly. He *speaks* English.

The wind *blows* cold. The wind *blows* the dust.

An **intransitive verb** may take an object which expresses an idea similar in meaning to the verb itself; as,

He *ran* a race. John *died* a happy death.

He *lived* the life of a hermit in London.

A **copulative verb** is one which requires a complement that describes the subject; as,

She *seems* happy. The water *tastes* bitter.

My friends *are* musicians. In spring the air *feels* balmy.

Nouns and *adjectives* used with *copulative verbs* are called *predicate nouns* and *predicate adjectives*.

NOTE.—The verb *to be* is the only pure copula verb. A few other incomplete verbs are used as copulative verbs.

A **regular verb** is one which forms its past tense and past participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense-form; as, love, loved, loved; return, returned, returned.

NOTE.—Regular verbs are also called weak verbs, because they always add *d* or *ed* (in a few cases *d* has been changed to *t*) to the present tense to form the past tense and the past participle.

An **irregular verb** is one that does *not* form its past tense and past participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense-form; as, *fall, fell, fallen; write, wrote, written; get, got, gotten*.

NOTE.—Irregular verbs are also called strong verbs, because they always change the vowel of the present tense to form the past tense and past participle, but do not add an ending.

An **auxiliary verb** is one that is employed in the conjugation of other verbs; as, *will*, in *will go*; *have*, in *have loved*; *may*, in *may love*.

NOTE.—I. A defective verb is one in which some of the parts are wanting; as, *may, might; shall, should; will, would*.

II. A redundant verb is one which presents double forms of the past tense, or past participle, or both; as, *sang, sung; got, gotten; bid, bade, bidden, bid*.

III. An impersonal verb asserts action or state independently of any particular subject; as, *it rains; it thunders; it seems; it follows*. The subject of an impersonal verb is always in the third person singular.

IV. Words that are usually other parts of speech may do the work of a verb. Thus, *man* is a verb in the sentence, "Man the boat." *Up*, usually a preposition, is a verb in the sentence, "Up with the flag." *Black*, usually an adjective, is a verb in the sentence, "Black your shoes." *While*, usually an adverb, is a verb in the sentence, "While away the time."

V. Sometimes a preposition or an adverb forms a part of the verb-term; as, *burn up; stand out; make up; account for; laugh at*.

VI. Transitive and copulative verbs are incomplete verbs; active, intransitive verbs, complete.

VII. The auxiliary verbs, *have, has*, and *will* are incomplete verbs when used alone as verb-terms; as, I *have* a horse. He *has* money. I *willed* it.

VIII. The verb *to be* is a complete verb: (1) when used after the expletive "*There*", as, *There is* not a perfect man; (2) when standing at the end of a proposition, as, *We must believe that he is*.

IX. The word *it* is sometimes idiomatically combined with a noun or an adjective, making with the same a verb-term; as, *foot it*; *walk it*; *rough it*; *smooth it*; *queen it*.

X. Changes in the form of the verb to correspond to changes in its subject are very limited. With the exception of the verb *be*, in the indicative mode, present and past tenses, singular number, there are few changes in the form of the English verb to denote person, number, tense, mode, or voice.

EXERCISE.

1. Complete the meaning of three transitive verbs with noun-terms of the word-form.

2. Complete the meaning of three transitive verbs with noun-terms of the phrase-form.

3. Complete the meaning of three transitive verbs with noun-terms of the clause-form.

4. Complete the meaning of three copulative verbs with noun-terms of the word-form.

5. Complete the meaning of three copulative verbs with noun-terms of the phrase-form.

6. Complete the meaning of three copulative verbs with noun-terms of the clause-form.

7. Complete the meaning of three copulative verbs with adjective-terms of the word-form.

8. Complete the meaning of three copulative verbs with adjective-terms of the phrase-form.

9. Show that an adjective complement of the phrase-form is usually equivalent in meaning to an attributive adjective of the word-form.

10. In each of three sentences, use *it* as a part of the verb-term.

11. In each of three sentences, show that a preposition may form part of the verb-term.

12. Show that an adverb may form part of the verb-term.

13. Show that nouns may be used as verbs.

14. Show that adjectives may be used as verbs.

LESSON XIII.

COPULA — COMPLEMENT.

A **copulative verb** joins together, in logical union, the subject and the predicate of a proposition. It asserts something of some person or thing.

He *seems* a hero. The milk *tastes* sour. He *looks* tired.

The **copula** is a single verb or a verb-phrase; as,

He *is* grateful. She *may have been* happy.

He *might have been* chairman of the meeting.

Many **verb-phrases** in the passive voice are merely copula-terms; as,

He *was elected* chairman. The boy *was named* John.

He *was considered* dishonest. They *were deemed* very wise men.

The **complement** of a copulative verb is the *word, phrase, or clause* which completes the verb by describing the subject. Complements are attributive or substantive. The *complement* is the essential and significant predicate element; as,

The velvet feels *soft*. He is *to be pitied*.

Your neighbor is *whoever needs your help*.

The attributive complement always denotes a quality conception; as,

John is *happy*. She appears *bright*. He seems *uneasy*.

The substantive complement always denotes an object conception; as,

It is a *tree*. He is a *man*. Elizabeth was *queen*.

The attributive complement is usually an adjective of the word-form. The substantive complement is always a noun-term. In form it may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*.

The *object* of a transitive verb is the word or group of words which shows what the action expressed by the verb affects. It is always a noun-term. In form it may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*; as,

The mother loves her *child*.

John likes to *study the history of his state*.

Christopher Columbus proved *that the earth is round*.

NOTES. — I. Copula, "The word uniting the subject and the predicate of a proposition."

II. The sole use of the copula is to assert some attribute of a noun-term.

III. When the attribute expresses a quality or a class, the verb *to be* or an equivalent verb is always used; as, Sugar *is* sweet. The apple *tastes* sour. He *seems* a hero.

IV. When the attribute is an action, it blends with the verb and both are used as one word; as, The boy *is running*. He *was killed*. The field *was ploughed*. When the copula is combined with the *present participle* the two constitute the *progressive form* of the verb; when combined with the *past participle*, they constitute the *passive voice form* of the verb.

V. The verb-form always embraces two distinct constituents — copula — complement. In attributive verbs, both of these parts are incorporated into *one word*. Attributive verbs not only assert, but they indicate what is asserted; as, He *walks* — he *is walking*.

VI. The phrase-form of the complement may be any phrase which is the equivalent of a predicate adjective; as, He is *in misery* — he is *miserable*. He is *at liberty* — he is *free*. Time is *of great value* — time is *valuable*. But not all phrases which follow the verb *to be*, are complement terms; as, He is *in Texas*, (adv.) The work done by the phrase in the special sentence must determine whether it is a complement-term or an adverb-term.

VII. Sometimes the copula and complement do the work of a single verb; as, *I am of the opinion* — *I believe*.

VIII. The clause-form of the substantive complement of a copulative verb may be any clause that does the work of a noun; as, *The fact is that he came*. The question is *how can he be saved*. The condition is *if the enemy attempt to cross the river*. The point is *what is to be done first*. The home is *wherever the heart is*.

EXERCISE.

1. In each of nine sentences, use a different copulative verb.
2. Use three copulative verb-phrases.
3. Use three adjectives as complements.
4. Use three nouns as complements.
5. Use three phrases as complements.
6. Use three clauses as complements.
7. Use three phrases as objects.
8. Use three clauses as objects.
9. In what way is the complement of a verb related to the subject?
10. In what way is the object of a verb related to the predicate?
11. In what respect does an active intransitive verb differ from a transitive verb? Illustrate.
12. In what respect does an active intransitive verb differ from a copulative verb? Illustrate.
13. In what respect does a copulative verb differ from a transitive verb? Illustrate.
14. Introduce a clause complement with *that*.
15. Introduce a clause used as the object with *that*.
16. Show that the object of a verb modifies the verb.
17. Show that a verb may be transitive in one sentence and intransitive in another sentence.
18. Show that a copulative verb is an incomplete verb.
19. Show that *is* is sometimes a complete verb.
20. Show that a verb may be incomplete in one sentence and complete in another. Give three illustrations.

LESSON XIV.

VERBS AND VERB-PHRASES.

Verbs are complete or incomplete; as,

John *walks*. She *sleeps* (complete).

She *seems* happy. He *studies* French (incomplete).

A **verb-phrase** is a phrase that does the work of a verb; as,

I *am reading*. She *was sleeping*. I *do work*. I *did work*.

I *can read*. He *may have been reading*. He *could go*.

NOTE.—A verb-phrase is composed of a principal verb and an auxiliary verb or a verb used as an auxiliary.

Verb-phrases may be divided into four principal classes — progressive verb-phrases, emphatic verb-phrases, potential verb-phrases, and conditional verb-phrases.

A **progressive verb-phrase** is one composed of an incomplete participle and a tense of the auxiliary *be*; as,

I *am reading*. I *shall be reading*.

NOTE.—In a progressive verb-phrase, the auxiliary is always a copula and the participle an attributive complement of the subject. A progressive verb-phrase is the equivalent of an attributive verb in the indicative mood, present tense; as, I *am reading* — I *read*. It *is snowing* — It *snows*.

An **emphatic verb-phrase** is one composed of the present or the past tense of the auxiliary *do* and the root infinitive of a principal verb; as, I *do work*. I *did work*.

A **potential verb-phrase** is one composed of one of the auxiliaries *may, can, must, might, could, would, or should*, and the root infinitive of a principal verb; as,

I may go. He can go. He must go. He could go.

These phrases express *potentiality*.

A **conditional verb-phrase** is one used in making a conditional statement; as,

If they should send for us, we would go.

If you would help me, I should be obliged.

NOTE.—*Must, should, and ought* are used in obligative phrases. That is, in phrases that are used to express obligation or necessity.

An **active verb-phrase** is one in which the subject is the actor; as,

I have sent him home.

The servant has lighted the lamp.

A **passive verb-phrase** is one in which the subject is the receiver of the action; as,

He has been sent home.

The lamp was lighted by the servant.

EXERCISE.

1. Define a verb and give four illustrations—two complete verbs, two incomplete verbs.
2. Define a verb-phrase and give three illustrations.
3. In what respect does a verb differ from a verb-phrase?
4. Into how many principal classes are verb-phrases divided?
5. In each of three sentences, use a different verb-phrase.
6. In each of three sentences, use a different emphatic verb-phrase.
7. In each of five sentences, use a different potential verb-phrase and tell the parts of which each phrase is composed.

8. In each of three sentences, use a conditional verb-phrase.
9. In each of three sentences, use a different active verb-phrase.
10. In each of three sentences, use a different passive verb-phrase.
11. What is meant by an infinitive without *to*?
12. In what way do verb-phrases aid us in the expression of our ideas?

LESSON XV.

VERBALS.

Besides the inflected and asserting forms of the verb already given, there are two kinds of words called **verbals** derived from every principal verb. They are not really verbs, because they do not *assert* anything; they merely express action in a general way; they assume their attributes, hence, they are never predicates. They are used as *adjectives* and *nouns* and are called participles and infinitives.

Participles are verbal adjectives — that is, they have the construction of adjectives; as,

The great tree, *swaying* fearfully, soon yielded to the blast.

The regiment, *moving* the battery to the hill, renews the engagement.

The camels, *loaded* with rich goods, picked their way very slowly over the desert.

He has a library *filled* with rare books.

Then came the queen, *drest* in white, *drawn* in a cart, *accompanied* by a priest, and *escorted* by soldiers.

A penny *given* willingly is of greater value than a pound *given* grudgingly.

NOTE. — The word **participle** means participating in or sharing. A participle partakes of the nature of two parts of speech — of a verb and of an adjective. It may take an attributive or substantive complement and be modified by an adverb-term.

Infinitives are verbal nouns — that is, they have the construction of nouns; as,

To sing songs is a pleasant exercise.

The pupil wishes *to study* his lesson.

To waste in youth is *to want* in old age.

Taught by that power that pities me, I learn *to pity* them.

Still achieving, still pursuing, learn *to labor* and *to wait*.

NOTE. — The word **infinitive** means unlimited. An infinitive is used without an expressed subject to name an action not limited to a particular person and number.

Participles are of two classes — imperfect or present, and perfect or past.

An *imperfect* or *present* participle is formed by adding *ing* to the root of the verb; as,

Loving, giving, sleeping.

The *perfect* or *past* participle ends in *ed*, *t*, or *n*; as,

Loved, given, slept.

Infinitives are of two classes — the root-infinitive and the participial infinitive.

The **root-infinitive** is the simplest form of the verb — the form of the first person, present, indicative (except in the verb *be*).

Go, see, walk, love, give.

NOTE. — In the phrasal form *to* is part of the infinitive, and the components should never be separated by any other word.

The **participial infinitive** is formed by adding *ing* to the root of the verb.

Going, seeing, walking, loving, giving.

NOTES. — I. The participial infinitive, or gerund, is formed like the progressive participle. It is a participle in form and a noun in use. It is the name of an action.

II. The participle in *ing* is always used as an adjective. It limits a noun.

EXERCISE.

In the following sentences, pick out the participles and the infinitives and give the construction of each.

1. Seeing a crowd in the street, he ran to the door.
2. The man, resting by the road side, found a purse.
3. My little family were gathered round a charming fire, telling stories of the past and laying schemes for the future.
4. Just before midnight, we saw the moon rising above the mountains.
5. The spider, spinning his web, was an inspiration to Bruce.
6. To retreat was difficult; to advance impossible.
7. I wished to enter college, and hoped to receive aid from my uncle.
8. To the child it was not permitted to look beyond into the hazy lines that bounded his oasis of flowers.
9. The sun appears to beat in vain at the casements.
10. Firing his gun, the reckless hunter accidentally wounded a little girl.
11. Firing a gun is a dangerous pastime.
12. Wandering from place to place, she patiently waited for her tardy lover.
13. The groaning of prisoners and the clanking of chains were heard.
14. Who has not heard the crying of children?

15. He spent hours in correcting and in polishing a single couplet.

16. A clause limiting a noun is an adjective-term.

17. It is your duty to obey the rules.

18. Seeing is believing. To love is to live.

19. Flocks of little birds, wheeling around the lighthouse, blinded and maddened by the light, dashed themselves to death against the glass.

20. Our united efforts could not prevent his going.

21. Instead of reasoning more forcibly, he talked more loudly.

22. Reading and writing are indispensable in education.

23. The eye is never satisfied with beholding the stupendous works of the Creator.

24. He was accused of having obtained the goods on false pretences.

25. Besides the nets made by spiders to ensnare insects, some species have the power of running out a long thread, which answers the purpose of a balloon in raising them from the ground and carrying them floating a long distance in the air.

26. The warriors on the turrets high,
 Moving athwart the evening sky,
 Seemed forms of giant height.
 Above the gloomy portal arch,
 Timing his footsteps to a march,
 The warder kept his guard,
 Low humming, as he paced along,
 Some ancient border-gathering song.

27. 'Tis a meaner part of sense
 To find a fault than taste an excellence.

28. To mourn a mischief that is past and gone,
 Is the next way to draw mischief on.

29. The mountains and the hills shall break forth before you into singing, and all the trees of the field shall clap their hands.

30. Morn, waked by the circling hours, with rosy hand,
 Unbarred the gates of night.

LESSON XVI.

MODE — TENSE.

Mode is the form of the verb that indicates the manner of the assertion.

There are three modes — the indicative, the imperative, and the subjunctive.

The **indicative mode** expresses being, action, or state as a fact; as,

I shall go. He has gone early.

The sun shines. They will be here.

He came yesterday. I have finished the work.

The **subjunctive mode** is used in subordinate clauses to express a future contingency, a supposition contrary to fact, or a wish; as,

If I were you, I should go. I wish my mother were here.

If God send thee a cross, take it up willingly.

The **imperative mode** expresses being, action, or state as willed or desired; as,

Hear me for my cause. Give us this day our daily bread.

NOTE.— The subjunctive has very nearly gone out of use in modern English. This is true especially of its preterit tense. No verb except *be* has a preterit subjunctive that differs from the indicative. In place of the subjunctive we use either the indicative or some of the verb-phrases.— *Whitney*.

TENSE.

Tense is the form of the verb that indicates the time of the act or state and the degree of completeness.

There are six tenses — the present, the past, the future, the present-perfect, the past-perfect, the future-perfect.

The **present tense** of a verb expresses being, action, or state in present time; as,

I am. You study. He sleeps.

The **past tense** of a verb expresses being, action, or state in past time; as,

I was. You studied. He slept.

The **future tense** of a verb expresses being, action, or state in future time; as,

I shall or will be. You shall or will study. He shall or will sleep.

The **present-perfect tense** of a verb expresses being, action, or state as completed at the present time; as,

I have been. You have studied. He has slept.

The **past-perfect tense** of a verb expresses being, action, or state as completed at or before some past time; as,

I had been. You had studied. He had slept.

The **future-perfect tense** of a verb expresses being, action, or state that will have been completed at or before some future time; as,

I shall have been. You will have studied. He will have slept.

The **indicative mode** has six tenses — the *present*, the *present-perfect*, the *past*, the *past-perfect*, the *future*, the *future-perfect*.

The **subjunctive mode** has separate forms in but two tenses — the *present* and the *past*.

The **imperative mode** has one tense — the *present*.

NOTES.—I. The indicative mode is used: (1) to state facts; (2) to ask questions; (3) to express a supposition in which the conditions are dealt with as if they were facts.

II. The subjunctive mode is almost obsolete. It has been supplanted by the indicative.

III. The imperative mode is used only in the second person, singular or plural. Commands must be addressed to the person or persons who are to obey them.

LESSON XVII.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

An **auxiliary verb** is a verb used with a principal verb or a participle to form a verb-phrase.

The pure auxiliary verbs are *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*, and *ought*. *Be*, *have* and *do* are much used as auxiliary verbs, although they have infinitives and participles. A pure auxiliary has neither an infinitive nor a participle of its own.

The auxiliary verbs play an important part in the expression of ideas. If we were limited to the simple and inflected forms of verbs, the ideas that we could express would be very limited indeed.

Shall, in the *first* person, expresses *simple futurity*; in the *second* and *third* persons, *compulsion*. *Will*, in the *first* person, expresses *purpose*; in the *second* and *third* persons, *simple futurity*; as,

I *shall* go (mere futurity). You *shall* go (compulsion).

He *shall* go (compulsion). I *will* go (purpose).

You *will* go (simple futurity). He *will* go (simple futurity.)

NOTE. — Pupils should carefully note the difference in meaning between *shall* and *will*. Both words are often misused.

May expresses permission or possibility; as,

Mother says I *may* go. The Governor *may* pardon the convict.

Can expresses ability; as,

He *can* read. I think I *can* do the work.

Must expresses necessity; as,

He *must* go. It *must* be so.

Might and *could*, the past tenses of *may* and *can*, follow the rules for *may* and *can*. *Might* expresses *possibility* and *could* expresses *ability*; as,

He *might* come (possibility). He *could* come (ability).

Should and *would*, the past tenses of *shall* and *will*, follow the rules governing the uses of *shall* and *will*; as,

I thought I *should* go. I determined I *would* go.

I feared he *would* fail. They promised they *would* help us.

EXERCISE.

SHALL — WILL.

Fill the blanks properly in the following twenty sentences:

1. I — go.
2. Depend on me, for I — be there.
3. I — go if the weather permits.
4. Charles — carry the water, and Mary — do the washing.
5. We — speak. You — hear us and our wrongs — be righted.

6. No effort — be spared that — contribute to the success of our enterprise.
7. It wrongs me, and I — not submit.
8. I — be greatly obliged if you — do me a favor.
9. — you call when you pass, or — I meet you at the next corner.
10. Shall he go? He —.
11. — he be down at noon? He —.
12. — I be in time for the train?
13. It — rain and we — get wet.
14. He — be in the city to-day and I — meet him.
15. I — go; rain or shine.
16. They — come regardless of our objections.
17. He — get the lesson if he has time.
18. You — see the parade if you wait till ten.
19. You — see that the room is properly ventilated.
20. You know that I — be there, and that she also — be there.

Fill the blanks properly with *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*:

He might ride if he —.

He could ride if he —.

He would sing if he —.

If you would help me, I — be obliged.

If they should send for us, we — not go.

NOTE.— A careful study of the auxiliary verbs is necessary to a clear expression of the meaning intended. Much of the time spent in conjugating verbs would yield better results if spent in a reflective use of the auxiliary verbs. Beyond an acquaintance with the principal parts of the *irregular verbs*, conjugation in English counts for little or nothing.

LESSON XVIII.

CONJUGATION.

The **conjugation** of a verb is the regular arrangement of its several *modes, tenses, voices, numbers, and persons*.

The **principal parts** of a verb are the root infinitive (the present indicative), the past tense (the past indicative), and the past participle.

A verb takes its number and person from its subject. The *form* of the verb, however, does not always depend on the person and number of its subject.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *BE*.

	PRESENT.	PAST.	PRES. PART.	PAST PART.
PRINCIPAL PARTS:	Be,	Was,	Being,	Been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.		PAST TENSE.	
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am.	1. We are.	1. I was.	1. We were.
2. Thou art.	2. You are.	2. Thou wast.	2. You were.
3. He is.	3. They are.	3. He was.	3. They were.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have been.	1. We have been.
2. Thou hast been.	2. You have been.
3. He has been.	3. They have been.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I had been.	1. We had been.
2. Thou hadst been.	2. You had been.
3. He had been.	3. They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall be.	1. We shall be.
2. Thou wilt be.	2. You will be.
3. He will be.	3. They will be.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall have been.	1. We shall have been.
2. Thou wilt have been.	2. You will have been.
3. He will have been.	3. They will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

(Generally used after *if, that, though.*)

PRESENT TENSE.		PAST TENSE.	
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I be.	1. We be.	1. I were.	1. We were.
2. Thou be.	2. You be.	2. Thou wert.	2. You were.
3. He be.	3. They be.	3. He were.	3. They were.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
2. Be (thou).	2. Be (you or ye).

SYNOPSIS OF THE ACTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

ROOT: Give.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Give, gave, given.

	TENSES.	COMMON FORMS.	PROGRESSIVE FORMS.	EMPHATIC FORMS.
INDICATIVE.	Present.	give	am giving	do give
	Past.	gave	was giving	did give
	Future.	shall or will give	shall or will be giving	
	Pres. Perf.	have given	have been giving	
	Past Perf.	had given	had been giving	
	Fu. Perf.	shall or will have given	shall or will have been giving	
SUBJ.	Present.	give	be giving	do give
	Past.	gave	were giving	did give
CONDI.	Present.	should or would give	should or would be giving	
	Past.	should or would have given	should or would have been giving	
POTENTIAL.	Present.	may or can give	may or can be giving	
	Past.	might or could give	might or could be giving	
	Pres. Perf.	may or can have given	may or can have been giving	
	Past Perf.	might or could have given	might or could have been giving	
OBLIGATIVE	Present.	must or ought to give	must or ought to be giving	
	Past.	must or ought to have given	must or ought to have been giving	
IMP.	Present.	give	be giving	do give do be giving

INFIN.	Root. Perfect.	(to) give (to) have given	(to) be giving (to) have been giving	
	Participial.	giving		
PART.	Imperfect.	giving		
	Perfect.	having given	having been giving	

SYNOPSIS OF THE PASSIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

	TENSES.	COMMON FORMS.	PROGRESSIVE FORMS.
INDICATIVE.	Present.	am given	am being given
	Past.	was given	was being given
	Future.	shall or will be given	
	Pres. Perf.	have been given	
	Past Perf.	had been given	
	Fu. Perf.	shall or will have been given	
SUBJ.	Present.	be given	
	Past.	were given	
COND.	Present.	should or would be given	
	Past.	should or would have been given	
POTENTIAL.	Present.	may or can be given	
	Past.	might or could be given	
	Pres. Perf.	may or can have been given	
	Past Perf.	might or could have been given	
OBLIG.	Present.	must or ought to be given	
	Perfect.	must or ought to have been given	
IMP.	Present.	be given	
INFIN.	Root.	(to) be given	
	Perfect.	(to) have been given	
PART.	Imperfect.	being given	[given
	Perfect.	given	having been

VOICE.

Voice is that form of a transitive verb which shows whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

Transitive verbs have two forms to express voice—the active and the passive.

Verbs are in the **active voice** when they represent the subject as acting; as,

John *struck* William. James *read* the book.

Verbs are in the **passive voice** when they represent the subject as being acted upon; as,

William *was struck* by John. The book *was read* by James.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.*

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>
Abide	abode	abode	Beseech	besought	besought
Am, be	was	been	Bet	bet, R.	bet, R.
Arise	arose	arisen	Bless	blest, R.	blest, R.
Awake	awoke, R.	awaked	Bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid
Bake	baked	{ baked, baken	Bind	bound	bound
Bear	{ bore, bare	} born	Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bear	{ bore, bare	} borne	Bleed	bled	bled
(to carry)			Blow	blew	blown
Beat	beat	{ beaten, beat	Break	{ broke, brake	} broken
Begin	began	begun	Breed	bred	bred
Bend	bent, R.	bent, R.	Bring	brought	brought
Bereave	bereft, R.	bereft, R.	Build	built, R.	built, R.
			Burn	burnt, R.	burnt, R.
			Burst	burst	burst
			Buy	bought	bought

*Those marked R are also used as regular verbs.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>
Can	could	—	Fly	flew	flown
Cast	cast	cast	Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Catch	caught	caught	Freeze	froze	frozen
Chide	chid	{ chidden, <i>chid</i>	Get	got	got, gotten
Choose	chose	chosen	Gild	gilt, R.	gilt, R.
Cleave	{ clove, R.	{ cloven, <i>cleft</i>	Gird,	girt, R.	girt, R.
	{ cleft,		Give	gave	given
	<i>clave</i>		Go	went	gone
(to split)			Grave	graved	graven, R.
Cling	clung	clung	Grind	ground	ground
Clothe	clad, R.	clad, R.	Grow	grew	grown
Come	came	come	Hang	hung, R.	hung
Cost	cost	cost	Have	had	had
Creep	crept	crept	Hear	heard	heard
Crow	crew, R.	crowed	Heave	hove, R.	hove, R.
Cut	cut	cut	Hew	hewed	hewn, R.
Dare	durst, R.	dared	Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Deal	dealt	dealt, R.	Hit	hit	hit
Dig	dug, R.	dug, R.	Hold	held	{ held, <i>holden</i>
Do	did	done	Hurt	hurt	hurt
Draw	drew	drawn	Keep	kept	kept
Dream	dreamt, R.	dreamt, R.	Kneel	knelt, R.	knelt, R.
Dress	drest, R.	drest, R.	Knit	knit, R.	knit, R.
Drink	drank	{ drank, <i>drunk</i>	Know	knew	known
Drive	drove	driven	Lade	laded	laden, R.
Dwell	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.	Lay	laid	laid
Eat	ate	eaten	Lead	led	led
Fall	fell	fallen	Lean	leant, R.	leant, R.
Feed	fed	fed	Leap	leapt, R.	leapt, R.
Feel	felt	felt	Leave	left	left
Fight	fought	fought	Lend	lent	lent
Find	found	found	Let	let	let
Flee	fled	fled	Lie	lay	lain
Fling	flung	flung	(recline)		
			Light	lit, R.	lit, R.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>
Lose	lost	lost	Shoe	shod	shod
Make	made	made	Shoot	shot	shot
May	might	—	Show	showed	shown, R.
Mean	meant	meant	Shred	shred	shred
Meet	met	met	Shrink	{ shrunk, shrank	{ shrunk, shrunken
Mow	mowed	mown, R.	Shut	shut	shut
Pay	paid	paid	Sing	{ sang, sung	{ sung
Pen	pent, R.	pent, R.	Sink	{ sank, sunk	{ sunk
(to inclose)			Sit	sat	sat
Put	put	put	Slay	slew	slain
Quit	quit, R.	quit, R.	Sleep	slept	slept
Rap	rapt, R.	rapt, R.	Slide	slid	{ slidden, slid
Read	read	read	Sling	slung	slung
Rend	rent	rent	Slink	slunk	slunk
Rid	rid	rid	Slit	slit	slit, R.
Ride	rode	ridden	Smite	smote	{ smitten, smit
Ring	{ rang, rung	{ rung	Sow	sowed	sown, R.
Rise	rose	risen	Speak	{ spoke, spake	{ spoken
Rive	rived	riven, R.	Speed	sped	sped
Run	ran	run	Spend	spent	spent
Saw	sawed,	sawn, R.	Spill	spilt, R.	spilt, R.
Say	said	said	Spin	spun, <i>span</i>	spun
See	saw	seen	Spit	spit, <i>spat</i>	spit
Seek	sought	sought	Split	split	split
Seethe	seethed	sodden, R.	Spread	spread	spread
Sell	sold	sold	Spring	sprang	sprung
Send	sent	sent	Stand	stood	stood
Set	set	set	Stave	{ staved, stove	{ staved, stove
Shake	shook	shaken	Steal	stole	stolen
Shall	should	—			
Shape	shaped	shapen, R.			
Shave	shaved	shaven, R.			
Shear	sheared	shorn, R.			
Shed	shed	shed			
Shine	shone, R.	shone, R.			

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>
Stay	{ staid, stayed	{ staid, stayed	Tell	told	told
Stick	stuck	stuck	Think	thought	thought
Sting	stung	stung	Thrive	{ thrived, throve	{ thriven, R.
Stride	strode	stridden	Throw	threw	thrown
Strike	struck	{ struck, stricken	Thrust	thrust	thrust
String	strung	strung	Tread	trod	{ trodden, trod
Strive	strove	striven	Wax	waxed	waxen, R.
Strew	strewed	strown, R.	Wear	wore	worn
Swear	{ swore, swore	{ sworn	Weave	wove	woven
Sweat	sweat	sweat, R.	Weep	wept	wept
Sweep	swept	swept	Wet	wet, R.	wet, R.
Swell	swelled	swollen, R.	Whet	whet, R.	whet, R.
Swim	{ swam, swum	{ swum	Will	would	—
Swing	swung	swung	Win	won	won
Take	took	taken	Wind	wound, R.	wound
Teach	taught	taught	Work	wrought, R.	wrought, R.
Tear	tore, tare	torn	Wring	wrung	wrung
			Write	wrote	written

TO THE TEACHER: Pupils should not be required to learn the principal parts of a verb or the conjugations by rote. They knew how to use a verb before they began to study grammar. When, therefore, they have mastered mode, tense, voice, person, and number, they should be required to *make up* a conjugation. They would thus be required to exhibit their knowledge of the subject, while recitation by rote would be a tedious exercise of the memory. As the mind has only what it does, pupils acquire lasting impressions only by doing.

The list of irregular verbs is given that it may be referred to when necessary. It is not intended that the list should be learned by rote. Pupils know the past tense and past participle of most verbs before they begin the study of grammar. Pupils should be questioned on the list and required to give the principal parts of the verbs that are most frequently misused.

LESSON XIX.

VERBS.

In parsing a *verb* tell :

1. Whether it is *complete* or *incomplete*, *regular* or *irregular*.
2. If it is *irregular*, its principal parts.
3. *Mode*, *tense*, *voice*, *person*, and *number*.
4. *Agreement* with its subject.

In parsing a *verb-phrase* tell :

1. The *exact kind* — whether it is *active*, *passive*, *progressive*, *emphatic*, or *potential*.
2. The *parts* of which it is composed — auxiliary and principal verb or participle.
3. *Inflection* of tense.
4. *Agreement* with its subject.

NOTES. — I. A verb-phrase should be parsed as a unit. It does the work of a verb. The mind grasps it as an entirety. Nothing is gained by parsing its part separately.

II. The auxiliary or assertive part of a verb-phrase includes all the phrase, except the last word, which expresses the attribute of the subject.

Parse the *verbs* and *verb-phrases* in the following sentences :

1. The boy walks rapidly.

MODEL. — *Walks* is a complete verb, regular, indicative mode, present tense; third person, singular number to agree with its subject *boy*.

2. He was considered upright, yet he did many things that were condemned.

MODEL.—*Did* is an incomplete verb, transitive, irregular, principal parts—*do, did, done*, active voice, indicative mode, past tense; third person, singular number to agree with its subject *he*.

3. The book may have been written by one who is living in this city.

MODEL.—*May have been written* is a passive, potential verb-phrase, composed of the auxiliary *may have been* and the perfect participle of the verb *write*, principal parts—*write, wrote, written*, present-perfect tense; third person, singular number to agree with its subject *book*.

Is living is a progressive verb-phrase, composed of the auxiliary *is* and the present participle of the verb *live*, present tense; third person, singular number to agree with its subject *who*.

4. She is reading about the coming of the queen.
5. Judges and senates have been bought for gold.
6. They feared that he might have been carried off by the gypsies.
7. A strong feeling had been growing upon her during the entire speech.
8. Enjoyment may afford strength to mind and body.
9. The river was rising and overflowing its banks.
10. The troops were marching towards Atlanta.
11. When the fit was on him, I did mark how he did shake.
12. There are places where the sun does shine in the night.
13. I tell you that which ye yourselves do know.
14. If he can play the violin, he may practice on mine.
15. You might recite "The Raven," if you could learn it.
16. If I were there, I should be asked.
17. I should go, if I could get away.
18. The rabbits had been caught in a trap.
19. He was refused the protection of the law.
20. The flood must have carried away the bridge.
21. Beware of entrance to a quarrel; but being in,
Bear it that the opposed may beware of thee.

22. He who fights and runs away,
Will live to fight another day.
23. Prodigious actions may as well be done,
By weaver's issue as by prince's son.
24. Take heed lest passion sway thy judgment to do aught
Which else free will would not admit.
25. Who does the best his circumstance allows,
Does well, acts nobly; angels could do no more.
26. I would be friends with you, and have your love.
27. Trust that man in nothing who has not a conscience in
everything.
28. Who overcomes by force hath overcome but half his foe.
29. Chance will not do the work.
30. Put on the dauntless spirit of resolution.

LESSON XX.

ADVERBS.

An **adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Adverbs may be divided into four general classes — adverbs of place, of time, of cause, of manner.

Adverbs of **place** answer the questions *where, whither, whence*.

Adverbs of **time** answer the questions *when, how long, how often*.

Adverbs of **cause** answer the questions *why, wherefore, then*.

Adverbs of **manner** and **degree** answer the questions *how, how much*.

Some adverbs throw their force upon statements, thus showing how the thought is conceived; as, *Certainly* I believe you. *Perhaps* it is true. *Undoubtedly* he will pay the note. *Possibly* it is true. Such adverbs are called **adverbs of modality**. *Yes, no, not* are classed as adverbs of modality.

Many adverbs, especially those denoting manner, admit of comparison; as,

Soon, sooner, soonest; brightly, more brightly, most brightly.

The largest class of adverbs is derived from adjectives by adding the suffix *ly*; as,

Truly, clearly, hastily, wholly, splendidly, smoothly.

There is used as an expletive — a word used to fill a vacancy — to introduce a sentence when the verb *to be* denotes existence; as,

There were giants in those days. *There* comes a time when we must die.

Many phrases have the value of single adverbs and should be treated as such; as,

By stealth, of yore, at random, at all, at once, at last, at least, in like manner, in part, in short, in vain, in general, as yet, by far, of old, of late, ere long, from far, on high, for good.

The adverb *so* is often used as a substitute for some preceding word or group of words; as,

He is *in good business*, and is likely to remain *so*.

Some adverbs limit no particular word or words in the sentence; they are used independently; as,

Why, you told me so yourself.

Well, I will let you know if I decide to go.

A **conjunctive adverb** may introduce a *noun-clause*, an *adjective-clause*, or an *adverb-clause*; as,

Please tell me *why you are late*.

I saw the field *where the battle was fought*.

It happened *when I was a very small boy*.

EXERCISE.

Correct the following examples with reference: (1) to choice of adverb; (2) with reference to form; (3) with reference to position.

1. Speak slow and distinct.
2. You have behaved very bad.
3. This pen does not write good.
4. At this place, the mountains are extraordinary high and remarkable steep.
5. He lived an extreme hard life.
6. An abominable ugly little woman officiated at the table.
7. The fox is an exceeding artful animal.
8. He is doing fine.
9. People say he is independent rich.
10. You have been wrong informed on the subject.
11. She dresses suitable to her station and means.
12. Agreeable to the present arrangement, I shall have to recite my Greek during the first hour.
13. The insolent proud soon acquire enemies.
14. You did the work as good as I could expect.
15. The man was so bruised that he scarce knew himself.
16. As like as not, you love her yourself.
17. I can easier raise a crop of hemp than a crop of tobacco.
18. Abstract principles are easiest learned when they are clearest illustrated.
19. A wicked man is not happy, though he be never so hardened in conscience.
20. Snow seldom or ever falls in the southern part of Texas.

21. Whether you are willing or no, you certainly will have to pay the debt.

22. Nothing farther was said about the matter.

23. It rains most every day.

24. This wheat stands most too thick.

25. Who brought me here, will also take me from hence.

26. We remained a week at Galveston, and proceeded from thence to Indianola.

27. Such cloaks were in fashion about five years since.

28. It is impossible continually to be at work.

29. I am some better than I was.

30. Every man cannot afford to keep a coach.

31. All their neighbors were not invited.

32. All that we hear, we should not believe.

33. The two young ladies from Chicago came to the party nearly dressed alike.

34. I only recited one lesson during the whole day.

35. He is only so when he is drunk.

36. I only bought the horse, and not the buggy.

37. Such prices are only paid in times of great scarcity.

38. The interest not only had been paid, but the greater part of the principal also.

39. If you have only learned to spend money extravagantly at college, you may stay at home.

40. The school must carefully be conducted to please all such patrons.

41. The words of a sentence should be arranged so that harmony may be promoted.

42. Nature mixes the elements variously and curiously sometimes, it is true.

43. You are to slowly raise the trap, while I hold the sack.

44. Having almost lost a thousand dollars by the speculation, he was able only to pay part of it back.

45. We do those things frequently which we repent of after careful consideration.

LESSON XXI.

ADVERBS.

In parsing an *adverb* tell:

1. The *class* to which it belongs.
2. The *degree* of comparison.
3. The *use* in the sentence.

1. They wept bitterly.
2. Why did they walk so rapidly?
3. The judge went away yesterday.
4. They came sooner than we expected, but they were most cordially received.
5. It is certainly true that very few birds of richly-colored plumage are found here now.
6. They were too much astonished to reply at once.
7. Next came a company of soldiers, gayly dressed and marching proudly along.
8. Probably if Queen Isabella had not soon after died, he would have received the assistance he so humbly begged.
9. The clock that stands there has never run regularly.
10. The less forward youth may become the more intelligent and cultured man.
11. He soon discovered his mistake, and acted accordingly.
12. No one who once heartily and wholly laughed can be altogether and irreclaimably depraved.
13. I am now much better; I hope to be quite strong within a few days.

LESSON XXII.

PREPOSITIONS.

A **preposition** is a word used to connect other words and to show the relation between them.

A preposition shows a relation between two terms — an antecedent and a subsequent. The subsequent term is called the *object* of the preposition. The object of a preposition is usually a *noun* or a *pronoun*.

The object of a preposition may be a *phrase* or a *clause*; as,

Wait till *after the shower*. Listen to *what I say*.

NOTE. — The object of a preposition may be an adverb or an adjective; as, He never tried till *then*. Lift up your voice on *high*.

It frequently requires two or more words to express the relation that a noun-term bears to the word which it modifies. Such a group of words should be treated as a unit. The following are examples:

Out of, from out, as to, as for, on board of, on this side, along side, in front of, in spite of, by way of, by means of, because of, instead of, in regard to, in respect of, for the sake of.

Such groups are called *complex prepositions* or *preposition phrases* (not prepositional phrases).

In such combinations as the following: *put in, go up, go down, cut through, pass by, climb up*, the preposition may be parsed as an adverb when it is not followed by an object.

Some verbs take a prepositional complement, the verb and the preposition being the equivalent of a transitive verb; as,

He *carried off* the prize. The judge *winked at* the iniquity of the decision. She *laughed at* the young man's mistakes.

Some prepositions are restricted by their meaning and by usage to definite conditions and particular combinations. Thus *between* always implies *two*, and *not more than two* related persons or things. *Among* implies more than two. *Beyond* is appropriate after *go*, and *above* after *rise*. *In* is, generally, quite inappropriate after verbs of motion. We *go into* a house, and perhaps *stay in* it.

Many *verbs, nouns, and adjectives* take some one preposition after them rather than any other, and altogether exclude the use of all but one, or one of two. Usually, a noun derived from a verb takes the same preposition as the verb.

The correct use of prepositions can be acquired only by correct thinking and practice. Clear thinking usually selects the right word. The choice of a preposition depends upon the exact idea to be expressed.

The following list of verbs, nouns and adjectives, given by Dr. Angus, in his *Handbook of the English Tongue*, shows the preposition specially associated with the respective words:

Accord *with*.

Accuse *of* crime *by* one's friend.

Acquit persons *of*.

Affinity *to* or *between*.

Adapted *to* a thing or *for* a purpose.

Agreeable *to*; agree *with* persons and *to* things.

Attend *to* (listen), *upon* (wait).

Averse *to*, when describing feeling; *from*, when describing an act or state.

Bestow *upon*.

Boast *of*.

Call *on*.

Change *for*.

Confer *on* (give), *with* (converse).

Confide *in* (when intransitive), *it to* (when transitive).

Conformable *to*.

Compliance *with*.

Convenient *to* and *for*.

Conversant *with* persons; *in* affairs.

Correspond *with* and *to*.

Coupled *with* and *by*.

Dependent *upon*.

Derogatory *to* a person or thing; to derogate *from* authority.

Die *of* or *by*.

Differ *from*; a difference *with* a person or *between* things.

Difficulty *in*.

Diminution *of*.

Disappointed *of* something we do not get, *in* it when obtained, if it does not answer our expectations.

Disapprove *of*.

Discouragement *to*.

Dissent *from*.

Eager *in* or *about*.

Exceptions *to* or *against* statements; to except *from*.

Expert *at* or *in*.

Fall *under* or *over*.

Free *from*.

Frown *at* or *on*.

Glad *of* something gained; *of* or *at* what befalls another.

Independent *of*.

Inquire *of* or *about*.

Insist *upon*.

Made *of* or *for*.

Marry *to*.

Martyr <i>for</i> a cause, <i>to</i> a disease.	Reduce <i>to</i> order and <i>under</i>
Need <i>of</i> .	subjection.
Observance <i>of</i> .	Regard <i>for</i> or <i>to</i> .
Prejudicial <i>to</i> .	Smile <i>at</i> or <i>upon</i> .
Prejudice <i>against</i> .	Swerve <i>from</i> .
Profit <i>by</i> .	Taste <i>of</i> ; a taste <i>for</i> (capacity
Provide <i>for</i> , <i>with</i> , <i>against</i> .	for enjoying).
Recreant <i>to</i> , <i>from</i> .	Think <i>of</i> or <i>on</i> .
Reconcile <i>to</i> .	Thirst <i>for</i> or <i>after</i> .
Replete <i>with</i> .	True <i>to</i> or <i>of</i> .
Resemblance <i>to</i> .	Wait <i>on</i> , <i>at</i> , or <i>for</i> .
Revolve <i>on</i> .	Worthy <i>of</i> .

EXERCISE.

Correct the following examples with reference: (1) *to choice*; (2) *position*; (3) *insertion* or *omission*; (4) *repetition*.

1. The sultry evening was followed, at night, with a heavy storm of rain.
2. The soil is adapted for hemp and tobacco.
3. Congress consists in a Senate and in a House of Representatives.
4. The government is based in republican principles.
5. The said client believes that the said judge is prejudiced about his cause.
6. The case has no resemblance with the other.
7. In contradistinction from the other.
8. Religion and church membership may differ widely with each other.
9. He was accused with having acted unfairly.
10. You may rely in what I say, and confide on his honesty.
11. These bonnets were brought in fashion last year.
12. The bird flew up in the tree.
13. Charles let his dollar drop in the creek.

14. It is an affair on which I am not interested.
15. He went to see his friends on horseback.
16. Habits must be acquired of temperance and self-denial.
17. He rushed into, and expired in, the flames.
18. The cost of the carriage was added to, and greatly increased my account.
19. It was to your brother to whom I was mostly indebted.
20. The sycamore was fifteen feet diameter.
21. From having heard of his distress, I sent him relief.
22. My business prevented me attending the last meeting of the society.
23. The attack is unworthy your notice.
24. San Francisco is the other side the Rocky Mountains.
25. The spring is near to the house.
26. Many talented men have deserted from the party.
27. I admit of what you say.

In parsing a *preposition* tell:

1. The *kind* of phrase it introduces.
2. The *words* between which it shows relation.

Parse the *prepositions* in the following sentences:

1. The steed along the drawbridge flies.
2. Belief in immortality is natural.
3. During Elizabeth's reign, great literary lights arose.
4. There was one clear shining star that used to come out in the sky before the rest, near the church spire, above the graves.
5. The highest fame was never reached except by what was aimed above it.
6. I bring fresh showers for the thirsting flowers, from the seas and streams.
7. Glorious indeed is the world of God around us, but more glorious is the world of God within us.

LESSON XXIII.

CONJUNCTIONS — INTERJECTIONS.

A **conjunction** is a word used to connect sentences or parts of sentences.

Connectives are divided into two classes — coördinate and subordinate.

Coördinate connectives are those which join words, phrases, or sentences of equal rank, and are divided into three classes — copulative, alternative, and adversative.

Copulative — those which connect elements in harmony with each other; as,

And, also, likewise, besides, moreover.

Alternative — those which offer or deny a choice; as,

Or, nor, either, neither, else, otherwise.

Adversative — those which imply that the parts connected are opposed to each other; as,

But, yet, however, still, only, than, nevertheless, lest, though, notwithstanding.

Causal — those which connect elements, one of which is the cause, reason or result of the other; as,

For, hence, therefore, consequently, because.

Correlative—*either* and *or*, with their negatives, *neither* and *nor*, are called *correlatives* (having a *mutual* relation), because they are generally used in pairs, introducing the alternatives.

Subordinate connectives are those which join elements of unequal rank.

They connect *substantive* clauses, *adjective* clauses, and *adverbial* clauses. The principal subordinate connectives are:

That, if, lest, unless, notwithstanding, though, although, after, before, since, for, till, until, because, except.

NOTE.—A subordinate connective, like a preposition, always shows a relation of dependence. A preposition is a word that denotes the relation in which one thing stands to another. A subordinate conjunction connects a dependent sentence with an independent proposition.

INTERJECTIONS.

An **interjection** is an exclamatory word used for the purpose of expressing feeling.

The common interjections are those expressing:

Joy, *hey, huzza*; surprise, *aha, hah*; attention, *ho, halloo*; aversion, *fie, pshaw*; sorrow, *alas, woe*; silence, *hst, hush, mum*.

Interjections are sometimes combined with other words to make exclamatory phrases; as,

Ah me! Alas the day! O horror! What ho! O for rest!

NOTE.—As the Interjection is not the sign of an idea, but merely an expression of emotion, it cannot have any definable signification or grammatical construction.

CONJUNCTIONS.

In parsing a *conjunction* tell :

1. The *kind* — coördinate or subordinate.
2. *What* it connects.

1. Carthage and Rome were rival powers.
2. Men must be taught as if you taught them not.
3. Since the trouble cannot be cured, it must be endured.
4. Word came that the king had escaped.
5. Come back as soon as you can.
6. Do your work, otherwise you will get no pay.
7. Hannah the housemaid
 Laughed with her eyes as she listened, but governed her
 tongue, and was silent.
8. Neither the sunbeams, nor the birds, nor the red clouds
which morning and evening sailed above him, gave the little tree
any pleasure.
9. What recked the chieftain if he stood
 On Highland heath or Holy rood? — *Scott*.
10. And the stars never rise but I feel the bright eyes
 Of the beautiful Annabel Lee. — *Poe*.
11. The coming and going of the birds is more or less a mys-
tery and a surprise.
12. Give me such things as you have.

INTERJECTIONS.

In parsing an *interjection*, tell that the word or phrase is an interjection and what feeling it expresses.

NOTE. — An interjection is a sound which expresses an emotion, but does not enter into the construction of the sentence.

LESSON XXIV.

THE VARIED USE OF WORDS IN ENGLISH.

The fundamental principle of English grammar may be stated with little exaggeration as being this, that any word may be used as any part of speech. — *Edwin A. Abbott.*

In the English language, a word does not belong exclusively to a single part of speech. The part of speech to which a word belongs in a particular sentence depends upon its use in that sentence. The following brief survey of the words most widely used as more than two parts of speech, will illustrate that use decides classification :

ALL.

1. Noun : He lost *all*.
2. Adjective : *All* men are mortal.
3. Adverb : Her cheeks were *all* pale.

AS.

1. Relative : Such *as* I have give I to thee.
2. Conjunctive adverb of *time* : I arrived *as* he was taking his leave.
3. Conjunctive adverb of *manner* : Speak *as* you think.
4. Adverb of *degree* : You are *as* old as I am.
5. Part of a phrase : *As* to that matter, he was silent.
6. Preposition : His place *as* a thinker is difficult to fix.

BUT.

1. Conjunction : He is not sick, *but* faint.
2. Preposition : They gave him all *but* one.
3. Adverb : If they kill us we shall *but* die.

CONSIDERING.

1. Participle: Louis, carefully *considering* the offer, decided to accept.
2. Gerund: The Queen's time was occupied with *considering* affairs of state.
3. Verbal noun: The *considering* of the bids took the commission several days.
4. Preposition: *Considering* the difficulties, the journey was quickly made.

MUCH.

1. Noun: Where *much* is given *much* is required.
2. Adjective: *Much* ado is made.
3. Adverb: I was *much* pleased with the visit.

ONLY.

1. Adjective: The *only* lesson heard was reading.
2. Adverb: I wrote *only* to amuse myself.
3. Conjunction: It is the right kind *only* it is too small.

SINCE.

1. Conjunction denoting *time*: She has improved, *since* you gave her lessons.
2. Conjunction denoting *cause*: *Since* you can solve the problem, you may do so.
3. Temporal adverb: He died three months *since*.
4. Preposition: *Since* that time, we have not spoken.

STILL.

1. Adverb: The man *still* lives.
2. Adjective: The child fell into the *still* water.
3. Conjunction: It is too small, *still* it will do.
4. Verb: He *stills* the noisy sea.

THAT.

1. Relative pronoun: The man *that* I met.
2. Adjective pronoun: *That* is what I mean.
3. Adjective: *That* book belongs to me.
4. Substantive conjunction: I knew *that* the man would very soon come.
5. Conjunction of *purpose*: We study mathematics *that* we may learn how to think.

WHAT.

1. Relative pronoun: It is *what* [*that which*] I wanted.
2. Interrogative pronoun: *What* [*things*] do you want?
3. Interrogative adjective: *What* excuse does he make?
4. Interjection: *What!* Have you come at last?
5. Indefinite interrogative pronoun: He asked *what* had happened.
6. Indefinite relative adjective:
For in that sleep of death *what* dreams may come
When we have shuffled off this mortal coil,
Must give us pause.

WHICH.

1. Interrogative pronoun: *Which* did you take?
2. Interrogative adjective: *Which* horse did you buy?
3. Relative pronoun: The horse *which* I sold.

LESSON XXV.

VERBALS — PARTICIPLES AND INFINITIVES.

On account of their twofold nature and manifold uses, verbals are regarded as the most difficult subjects treated in grammar.

PARTICIPLES.

A **participle** is the form of a verb having the properties of a verb and an adjective; as,

The *running* brook is clear. She has a *cultivated* voice.

I saw a bird *sitting* on a limb.

He has a library *filled* with rare books.

A man sat at his desk hastily *writing* a letter.

Children *walking* in the park always stop to see the lake.

There are two participles — the present participle and the past participle.

The **present participle** always ends in *ing*; as,

I saw a man *walking* in the meadow.

People *living* in a busy city long for a quiet country home.

NOTE.—Verbals do not have definite tense signification. They show the act as indefinite, progressive, or perfected. They assert action in a general way without limiting the action to any time, or asserting it of any subject. They express tense as present, past, or future relatively to the time of the principal verb.

The **past participle** ends in *d*, *n*, or *t*; as,

John, *having recited* his lesson, went to the country.

Having been driven from home, he enlisted in the army.

He, *having slept* too late, missed the train.

A **compound participle** consists of *being*, *having*, or *having been*, and a present or past participle placed after it; as,

Cæsar, *having sent* forward his cavalry, followed.

Having finished his speech, he sat down.

Participles are often used as attributive adjectives; as,

Her *charming* voice captured the audience.

A *learned* speaker commands attention.

A participle may be used as a simple, predicate adjective; as,

He is *fatigued*. He is *deserted*.

NOTE. — A simple participle used as a predicate adjective does not form with the verb a verb-phrase, but is a predicate adjective merely, and should be parsed like any other qualifying adjective.

Participles are often used as nouns; as,

He spoke of the *living* and the *dead*; the *tempted* and the *tried*; the *lost*, *buried*, and *forgotten*.

A participle, in its appropriate use, takes the place of an adjective clause; as,

And children *coming* home from school

Look in at the open door.

And children that come home from school look in at the open door.

Up rose old Barbara Frietchie then,

Bowed with her four score years and ten.

Then up rose old Barbara Frietchie, who was bowed with her four score years and ten.

The *attributive complement* of a participle qualifies the word that the phrase limits; as,

Being *tired*, I decline.

Having been *ill*, he was unable to go.

The *substantive complement* of a participle is in apposition with the noun that the phrase limits; as,

John being a *hero*, saved the child.

He having been a *merchant*, took the invoice.

A participle may do the work of both an adjective and an adverb in the same sentence; as,

He came to the house *crying*.

The tree stands firmly *rooted* in the soil.

Participles may take:

1. **Adverbial modifiers**; as,

Walking *rapidly*, he soon completed his journey.

Reading *without reflection* profits us little.

The steamer is lying *where we saw it yesterday*.

2. **Objects**; as,

Expecting *to see you*, I did not write.

Having stated *that Grant won the battle*, he retired

3. **Complements**; as,

Being *sleepy*, I retired early.

John being a *hero*, did his duty.

A participle, or a participial phrase, may be used:

1. As an **adjective**; as,

We visited a *ruined* castle.

Running water does not stagnate.

The garrison, *expecting reinforcements*, refused to surrender.

2. With a **noun** or a **pronoun** in the absolute construction; as,

The signal *being given*, the class was excused.

The weather *permitting*, we shall go home to-morrow.

EXERCISE.

1. State concisely and clearly the distinguishing difference between a participle and a verb.

2. In each of three sentences, use a participial phrase as an adjunct of the subject of a verb.

3. In each of three sentences, use a participial phrase as an adjunct of the object of a verb.

4. In each of three sentences, use a different form of the noun-term as the object of a participle.

5. In each of three sentences, use a different form of the adverb-term as a modifier of a participle.

6. Use three different adjectives as complements of participles and explain the use of each adjective.

7. Use three different nouns as complements of participles and explain the use of each noun.

8. State clearly and concisely the difference between present and past participles.

9. In each of three sentences, use a clause as the object of a participle.

10. In each of three sentences, show that a participle is a verbal adjective.

11. Use a participle as an adjunct of a noun or a pronoun in the absolute construction.

12. Use a participial phrase as an adjunct of a noun or a pronoun in the absolute construction.

13. Show that a participial phrase used as an adjunct of a noun in the absolute construction is the equivalent of an adverbial clause.

14. In each of two sentences, show that a participial phrase in its common use is the equivalent of an adjective clause.

LESSON XXVI.

INFINITIVES.

An **infinitive** is the form of a verb having the properties of a verb and of a noun; as

To do good was his aim. He likes *to read* Latin.

NOTE.—The infinitive expresses in noun-form the act or state which the verb asserts. Infinitives are *names* of actions. They are not true verbal forms, but are derived from verbs. The infinitive expresses the general idea of an act or state, but is not limited to a particular person and number.

The participial infinitive and the infinitive with *to* have, in part, the same uses. Both may be used: (1) as the *subject* of a verb; as, *Seeing* is believing. *To see* is to believe; (2) as the *object* of a verb; as, He likes *traveling*. He likes *to travel*; (3) as the *complement* of a copulative verb; as, *Seeing* is *believing*. *To see* is *to believe*.

Infinitives are of two classes—root infinitives and participial infinitives.

A **root infinitive** is the simplest form of the verb and usually has *to* placed before it to distinguish it from the finite or the asserting form of the verb.

(To) love, (to) live, (to) go.

After the verbs *bid*, *dare*, *let*, *hear*, *feel*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and some others, *to* is usually omitted before the infinitive; as,

I dare not *go*. We saw them *start*.

Bid him *come*. You need not *stay*.

NOTE. — An infinitive phrase, or phrasal infinitive, is a phrase introduced by *to* followed by a verb.

The other infinitive is the **participial infinitive** or infinitive in *ing*. When derived from a transitive verb the infinitive in *ing* can govern an object, and is then called a **gerund**. It is the same in form as the imperfect participle, but the two are entirely unlike in use; the participle is a verbal adjective, and the gerund is a verbal noun.

The gerund, like a noun, has case, and, like a verb, can govern case; as,

Making promises is easier than *keeping* them. The mind is improved by *reading* good literature.

NOTE. — It is a matter of little importance whether this infinitive is called a gerund or a participial infinitive. The participial infinitive is a noun and the gerund is also a noun.

An *infinitive* is a verbal noun; as,

1. *To read* improves the mind.
2. He likes *to read*.

In (1) "To read" is the subject of the verb.

In (2) "to read" is the object of the verb.

The subject or the object of a verb is always a noun — a noun-term.

The *participial infinitive* is also clearly a noun; as,

1. The *roaring* of the sea was heard.
2. I heard the *singing* of the birds.

In (1) "roaring" is the subject of the verb.

In (2) "singing" is the object of the verb.

Infinitives, like finite verbs, may take:

1. Adverbial modifiers; as,

Resolve to live *honorably*.

We expect to start *in the morning*.

We intend to go *when our friends arrive*.

2. Objects; as,

To help *others* is a duty.

The man seems to believe *what he says*.

3. Complements; as,

The boy seems to be *studious*.

His one desire is to become a *soldier*.

An infinitive may be used as:

1. The subject of a verb; as,

To err is human. *To watch him* is his duty.

2. The object of a verb; as,

We wish to *study geography*. Learn to *labor* and to *wait*.

3. The complement of a copulative verb; as,

To see is *to believe*. All we want is *to be set free*.

4. An adjective; as,

A desire *to learn* is commendable. Air *to breathe* is a necessity.

5. An adverb; as,

He studied *to learn*. I was sorry *to miss him*.

6. The object of a participle; as,

Fearing *to start*, we waited too long.

The mother, trying *to rescue her child*, lost her own life.

NOTE.—An infinitive used as the object of a participle has the construction of an abstract noun in the objective case.

7. The object of a preposition; as,

He is **about** *to join the army*.

He is willing to do anything **but** *(to) work*.

NOTE.—An infinitive used as the object of a preposition has the construction of an abstract noun in the objective case.

8. In apposition with a noun; as,

Delightful task! *to rear the tender thought*.

A wise decision—*to decide impartially*.

NOTE.—An infinitive is in apposition with a noun when it means the same thing as the noun.

9. With an assumed subject, as the object of a verb; as,

We knew *it to be him*. We expected *him to come*.

EXERCISE.

1. State concisely and clearly the distinguishing difference between a finite verb and an infinitive.

2. State the distinguishing difference between a participle and infinitive; (2) between a participle and finite verb.

3. Use a phrasal infinitive: (1) as the subject of a verb; (2) as the object of a verb.

4. Use a phrasal infinitive: (1) as the complement of a copulative verb; (2) as an adjective; (3) as an adverb.

5. Use a phrasal infinitive: (1) as the object of a participle; (2) as an appositive; (3) with an assumed subject; (4) with an assumed subject after the preposition *for*.

6. What is meant by the phrase, an infinitive in *ing*.

7. What is meant by the phrase, a simple infinitive?

8. Use an infinitive in *ing*: (1) as the subject of a verb; (2) as the object of a verb; (3) as the complement of a verb.

9. In what particular respect is an infinitive in *ing* like the present participle? Give examples.

8. In each of two sentences, use a different gerund.
9. In each of two sentences, use a different present participle.
10. Bring in sentences to show that the phrasal infinitive and infinitive in *ing* are interchangeable.
11. In each of two sentences, use an infinitive as an adjunct of the object of a verb.
12. In each of two sentences, show that a phrasal infinitive may be used as the object of a preposition.
13. Name five of the most important uses of the simple infinitive with *to* expressed.

In parsing a *participle* or an *infinitive* tell :

1. The *form*, whether simple or a phrase.
2. The *class*.
3. The verb to which it belongs, and the principal parts of the verb.
4. The *use* in the sentence.

Parse the *participles* and *infinitives* in the following sentences :

1. We noticed a little church standing near the road.
2. The man rowing the boat is a student of Yale.
3. He regrets having disregarded the ordinance.
4. Saving time is lengthening life.
5. Nothing is more tiresome than standing.
6. We found him lying on the ground.
7. Having written his letter, he sent it to his friend.
8. Having been driven from home, he enlisted in the army.
9. The hearing ear and seeing eye are alike wonderful.
10. Sweeping and eddying through them, rose the tide.
11. The young bird was too weak to stand.
12. Still achieving, still pursuing, learn to labor and to wait.
13. To see is to believe.
14. To waste in youth is to want in old age.
15. To have been defeated would have disgraced him.

16. Philosophy teaches us to endure afflictions.
17. The professor will teach us to draw.
18. It is human nature to take delight in exciting admiration.
19. Taught by that power that pities me, I learn to pity them.
20. The 17th of June saw the New England colonies standing here, side by side, to triumph or to fall together.
21. A fisherman leaving the shore pulled out to the sunken reef in a boat kept for his use.
22. Hearing a ship pounding on the rocks, he rowed till he could see the crew clinging half-frozen to the shattered masts.
23. To write letters easily is an accomplishment.
24. He tried to walk without his crutches.
25. Standing on what too long we bore
 With shoulders bent and downcast eyes,
 We may discern, unseen before,
 A path to higher destinies.
26. 'Tis not for mortals always to be blest.
27. I dare do all that may become a man.
28. Thieves are not judged, but they are by to hear,
 Although apparent guilt be seen in them.
29. All seems infected that the infected spy,
 As all looks yellow to the jaundiced eye.
30. Humanly speaking, he is beyond recovery.
31. Parliament passed a law to check vagrancy.
32. Shame to him whose cruel striking
 Kills for faults of his own liking.
33. Let us then be up and doing,
 With a heart for any fate;
 Still achieving, still pursuing,
 Learn to labor and to wait.
34. In an attitude imploring,
 Hands upon his bosom crossed,
 Wondering, worshipping, adoring,
 Knelt the monk in rapture lost.
35. To mourn a mischief that is past and gone,
 Is the next way to draw new mischief on.

LESSON XXVII.

PHRASES — CLAUSES.

In a general sense, a **phrase** is a group of related words *not* making complete sense; as,

A good old man. The old oaken bucket.

In a grammatical sense, a **phrase** is a group of related words *not* containing subject and predicate, and doing the work of a *noun*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb*. A phrase has the grammatical construction of a single part of speech.

Phrases are divided into three principal classes—substantive phrases, adjective phrases, and adverbial phrases.

A **substantive phrase** is a phrase that does the work of a noun. It may be used as the subject of a verb, as the object of a verb, as the complement of a copulative verb, as the object of a preposition, as the object of a participle, and as an appositive.

NOTE.—The class should give the construction of the italicised matter in the following sentences.

1. *To err* is human.
2. *Walking in the hot sunshine* is wearisome work.
3. He likes *to travel*.
4. He denies *having taken the coat*.
5. His purpose is *to do right*.
6. He seems *to be patient*.
7. He spends much time in *reading novels*.

8. He is about *to escape from the jail*.
9. Fearing *to start alone*, he was accompanied by his father.
10. Daring *to do right*, he was loudly applauded.
11. It is his purpose *to do right*.
12. It was his aim *to be just to all*.

An **adjective phrase** is a phrase that does the work of an adjective. It may limit the meaning of a noun used as the subject of a verb, as the object of a verb, as the complement of a copulative verb, or a noun used in any other relation; as,

1. The trees *along the road* have been trimmed.
2. A field *of clover* attracted a swarm of bees.
3. She wore a dress *of many colors*.
4. A gentleman of great learning addressed the pupils *of the first class*.
5. Ideas are the great warriors *of the world*.
6. A man's own good breeding is the best security *against other people's ill manners*.
7. He sailed upon the ocean in a ship *of war*.
8. The burial place *of Moses* is not known.
9. The laws *of nature* are the thoughts *of God*.

An adjective phrase may follow the noun it limits; as,
The man, *unsuspicious of any charge against him*, left the town.
The boy, *possessed of industrious habits*, got the prize.

An **adverbial phrase** is a phrase that does the work of an adverb. It may modify a single verb or a verb-phrase; as,

1. He came *after the appointed time*.
2. Gone was the glow *from his cheek* and the fire *from his eye*.
3. He may have been there *in the morning*.
4. *At the time*, he was considered a wealthy man.
5. *In the beginning*, God created heaven and earth.

NOTE.—At this point review Lesson III.

CLAUSES.

A **clause** is a group of related words containing subject and predicate and doing the work of a *noun*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb*. A clause, like a phrase, has the grammatical construction of a single part of speech.

Clauses, like phrases, are divided into three classes—substantive clauses, adjective clauses, and adverbial clauses.

A **substantive clause** is a clause that does the work of a noun. It may be used as the subject of a verb, as the object of a verb, as the complement of a copulative verb, as the object of a preposition, as the object of a participle, as the object of an infinitive, and as an appositive.

NOTE.—The class should give the construction of the italicised matter in the following sentences:

1. *That he is honest* is evident.
2. *Where he is buried* has never been discovered.
3. I dreamed *that Greece might still be free*.
4. I said "*I would obey your orders*."
5. My desire is *that the difficulty may be adjusted*.
6. His objection was *that the requisite means could not be very easily obtained*.
7. Each one should try to succeed in *whatever he undertakes*.
8. What can they see in the longest kingly line in Europe, *save that it runs back to a successful soldier?*
9. Hearing *that it was better to take the drive by moonlight*, we started at ten o'clock.
10. Believing *that the earth is round*, he sailed around it.
11. I desire to state *that he will do as he promised to do*.
12. He requested me to say *that he has been excused from the recitation this morning*.
13. Write it on your heart *that every day is the best day in the year*.
14. *It is a strange thing how little people know about the sky*.

An **adjective clause**, like an adjective phrase, is a clause that does the work of an adjective. It may limit the meaning of a noun used as the subject of a verb, as the object of a verb, as the complement of a copulative verb or a noun used in any other relation in the sentence.

1. They *that are whole* need not a physician.
2. I saw the man *that made the discovery*.
3. I heard the singer *whom you heard in Washington*.
4. The oak tree is the tree *that is most valuable*.

An **adverbial clause**, like an adverbial phrase, does the work of an adverb. It may be used to modify a single verb or a verb-phrase.

1. We laughed *when we saw our mistake*.
2. Make hay *while the sun shines*.
3. You will be respected *if you are honest*.
4. We were sitting by the window *when the clock struck nine*.
5. The mountain is so high *that you cannot see the top of it*.

Adverbial clauses are introduced by a great variety of subordinate conjunctions and denote a variety of uses. Like simple adverbs, an adverbial clause may denote *place, time, manner, cause, effect, concession, purpose*.

NOTE. — At this point, review Lesson IV.

EXERCISE.

In the following sentences pick out: (1) the substantive phrases; (2) the adjective phrases; (3) the adverbial phrases; (4) the substantive clauses; (5) the adjective clauses; (6) the adverbial clauses and give the construction of each; (7) the appositive clauses.

1. I stood on the bridge at midnight.
2. To love poetry is the mark of a refined mind.
3. By the pale moonlight is the time to view fair Melrose.
4. To make others happy should be our chief delight.
5. That he committed the crime was clearly proved.
6. What happened is of no consequence now.
7. The saddest of words are "It might have been."

8. To study these, as authorized forms of expression, is far more useful to the student than to follow them with the tenacity of the grammarian till every word is adjusted to its proper class and rule of construction.

9. Keep pupils constantly on their guard in all they say in your presence. Watch them until thoughtful expression becomes a habit with them. One can dislodge the use of incorrect expressions only by a purpose to dislodge them, and by a persistent use of correct forms of speech.

10. Dreams are the bright creatures of poem and legend, who sport on earth in the night season, and melt away in the first beam of the sun.

11. And cradled there in the scented hay,
 In the air made sweet by the breath of kine,
 The little child in the manger lay,
 The child that would be king one day
 Of a kingdom not human but divine.

12. This book seems what I have long wanted.
13. They came to scoff; they remained to pray.
14. He was anxious to make a start.
15. He said: "Come to me."
16. He ran to the rescue as fast as he could run.

17. We join ourselves to no party that does not carry the flag and keep step to the music of the Union.

18. We are bound to obey all the Divine commands, which we can not do without Divine aid.

19. Homer is remarkably concise, which renders him lively and agreeable.

20. You will find your books where you left them.

21. Before the physician arrived, the man who had lain unconscious was restored.

22. "You have done me a real service," he said.

23. Life is what we make it.

24. The home is wherever the heart is.

25. I gave him some bread, which he ate.

26. She passed the cup to the stranger, who drank heartily.

27. Think that To-day shall never dawn again.

28. Whoever saw it first cried out, "I see the star."

29. It was necessary to halt that the army might obtain food.

30. They will admit that he was a great poet; but they will deny that he was a great man.

31. The imprudent man reflects on what he has said; the wise man, on what he is going to say.

32. The Greeks said grandly, in their tragic phrase,
"Let no one be called happy till his death."

33. Confidence cannot dwell where Selfishness is porter at the gate.

34. Whither thou goest I will go; and where thou lodgest I will lodge.

35. When you face a difficulty, never let it stare you out of countenance.

36. It is the hour when from the boughs
The nightingale's high note is heard.

37. Count that day lost whose low-descending sun
Views from thy hand no worthy action done.

38. The fact that we believed in him kept him faithful.

39. It is uncertain what a day may bring forth.

40. The intention of the King, that he would crush the conspiracy in secret, was betrayed by a faithless minister.

LESSON XXVIII.

THE SENTENCE — PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.

Every sentence, however long, logically has but two parts — a subject and a predicate.

The **subject** of a sentence is the part about which something is said.

The **predicate** of a sentence is the part that expresses what is said about the subject.

The **bare** or **grammatical subject** of a sentence is the word that denotes the person or the thing about which some assertion is made.

The **bare** or **grammatical predicate** is the predicate verb or verb-phrase that expresses what is asserted of the subject.

The *bare* or *grammatical subject* together with its modifiers is called the *complete* or *logical subject*.

The *bare* or *grammatical predicate* together with its complement and modifiers is called the *complete* or *logical predicate*.

The **principal elements** of a sentence are the parts that make the unqualified assertion; as,

The blue *face* of ocean *smiled*.

A small *leak* may *sink* a great *ship*.

Thoughtful *conversation* *enriches* the *understanding*.

The *bare subject* of a sentence may be :

1. A **word** ; as,
God is love. *None* but the brave deserves the fair.
2. A **phrase** ; as,
To love is to live. *Reading good books* improves the mind.
3. A **clause** ; as,
What he says is seldom to the point.
That he is wealthy seems probable.

The *bare predicate* of a sentence may be :

1. A **single verb** ; as,
The thunder *leaps* from peak to peak.
The steamer *plies* between Boston and Portland.
2. A **verb-phrase** ; as,
They *might have been* here.
The canary *might have been singing*.

THE SENTENCE — SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.

The **subordinate elements** of a sentence are the modifiers of the principal elements.

The *bare subject* of a sentence may be modified by a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause* ; as,

- Studious* pupils are respected.
A thing *of beauty* is a joy forever.
He *who would have friends* must be friendly.

The *bare predicate* of a sentence may be modified by :

1. A **word**, a **phrase**, or a **clause** ; as,
He studies *diligently*. He came *in the morning*.
She consented *after she had duly considered the matter*.

2. A noun-term in the objective case ; as,

Longfellow wrote *Evangeline*.

He likes to *study*. God said: "*Let there be light.*"

3. An adverbial objective ; as,

He sat an *hour* by the river.

He walked a *mile*. The wheat weighed a *ton*.

4. A phrasal infinitive ; as,

She likes to *sing*. John wants to *study grammar*.

5. The infinitive in *ing* ; as,

She enjoys *singing*. He likes good *reading*.

6. A substantive complement ; as,

He seems a *hero*. To see is to *believe*.

The belief is *that the soul is immortal*.

NOTE.—"When a predicate is composed of two or more words, we call the simple verb in it the bare predicate, and this along with the rest the complete predicate."—*Whitney*.

THE SENTENCE — INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS.

The **Independent elements** of a sentence are the words and phrases that are not grammatically related to the sentence with which they stand.

Elements may be independent:

1. In **address** ; as,

John, come to me.

I think, *my friend*, you are wrong.

Why, man, he doth bestride the narrow world like a Colossus.

2. In **exclamation** ; as,

Ah me! how bitter sweet is love.

Alas, poor Yorick! I knew him.

O wretched *man* that I am!

3. In the figure called **pleonasm** ; as,

The smith, a mighty man is he.

Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me.

Harry's *flesh*, it fell away.

4. In **absolute constructions** ; as,

The rain having ceased, we departed.

The teacher being ill, we had no school.

This matter at an end, we will proceed.

5. **Words and phrases merely introductory** ; as,

Why, that cannot be.

By the way, I saw your friend to-day.

To be sure, the mistake was natural enough.

6. **Parenthetical expressions** ; as,

Let us, *therefore*, give warning.

You know, *come what may*, I am your friend.

Religion — *who can doubt it* — is the noblest of themes.

Independent expressions should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma ; as,

Yet once more, O ye *laurels*.

Gad, a troop shall overcome him.

To confess the truth, I was in error.

Generally speaking, little can be done after the first month.

LESSON XXIX.

1. Classify the following sentences. State kind: (1) with regard to use; (2) with regard to structure.

2. Pick out: (1) the bare subject; (2) the bare predicate; (3) the unqualified assertion; (4) the complete or logical subject; (5) the complete or logical predicate.

3. Pick out: (1) the modifiers of the subject; (2) the modifiers of the predicate.

4. Pick out the independent elements and tell why they are independent.

1. Books are the true levelers. — *Channing*.
2. The real difference between men is energy. — *Fuller*.
3. Moral reform is the effort to throw off sleep. — *Thoreau*.
4. In every life the post of honor is the post of duty.
5. The human heart refuses to believe in a universe without a purpose. — *Kant*.

6. To neglect the education of the country boys and girls is to invite a terrible national danger. — *Richard Edwards*.

7. Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger, comes dancing from the east. — *Shakespeare*.

8. The great object of all our education is to fit the individual to combine with his fellow man. — *W. T. Harris*.

9. Only as educated beings do we live a conscious life in the high sense of the word. — *W. T. Harris*.

10. It is irrational to pass by the moral and religious nature of children in our scheme of education. — *Newton Bateman*.

11. When you doubt, abstain. — *Zoroaster*.

12. Earth's highest station ends in, "Here he lies."
13. A friend is a person with whom I may be sincere.
14. Be admonished by what you already see not to strike leagues of friendship with any cheap person. — *Emerson*.
15. If there is any thing at which education should aim, it is equipping a man for the battle of life. — *Horace Greeley*.
16. A narrow basis of character or purpose must he have, who fears to stoop to the comprehension of his learners.
— *Howland*.
17. The nation that proclaims itself a government of all the people by all the people is necessarily founded on virtue and intelligence. — *W. T. Harris*.
18. No sublimer discovery has rewarded the investigation of the ages than that the powers of the soul are in the grasp of laws, harmonious, changeless, and inexorable. — *Newton Bateman*.
19. Our modern philanthropy has not discovered anything that will produce self-help in the criminal and pauper classes except education, intellectual and moral. — *W. T. Harris*.
20. It is faith in something, and enthusiasm for something, that makes a life worth looking at. — *Holmes*.
21. Where shall wisdom be found, and where is the place of understanding? — *Bible*.
22. Not only strike while the iron is hot, but make it hot by striking. — *Cromwell*.
23. Falsehoods not only disagree with truth, but generally quarrel among themselves. — *Daniel Webster*.
24. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day;
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea;
The plowman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.
25. I could never think well of a man's intellectual or moral character, if he was habitually unfaithful to his promises.
26. Impure men see life as it is reflected in opinions, events, and persons. — *Emerson*.

27. The whole world of the past is made, by education, the auxiliary of each man, woman, and child. — *W. T. Harris.*

28. The only sound and healthy description of assisting is that which teaches independence and self-exertion. — *Gladstone.*

29. By constant attention to the ethical qualities of all our words and actions, we form the habit of obeying conscience in all things. — *Edwin C. Hewett.*

30. Truth is the property of no individual, but is the treasure of all men. — *Emerson.*

31. Precept freezes, while example warms. Precept addresses us; example lays hold on us. Precept is a marble statue; example glows with life — a thing of flesh and blood.

— *W. E. Gladstone.*

32. That you have been deceived is clear.

33. Things are not what they seem.

34. The fact that he was beaten could not be denied.

EXERCISE.

1. Compose three sentences containing only principal elements.

2. Compose a sentence containing a word, a phrase, and a clause modifier of the bare subject.

3. Compose a sentence containing a word, a phrase, and a clause modifier of the bare predicate.

4. Compose sentences whose predicates consist: (1) of a copulative verb and an adjective; (2) of a copulative verb and a noun.

5. Compose sentences whose predicates consist: (1) of a copulative verb and a phrase; (2) of a copulative verb and a clause.

6. Compose sentences whose predicates consist: (1) of a transitive verb and its object (word-form); (2) of a transitive verb and its object (phrase-form); (3) of a transitive verb and its object (clause-form)

7. Compose a sentence whose predicate consists of a copulative verb and a noun.

8. Compose a sentence whose predicate consists of a copulative verb and a pronoun.

9. Introduce a noun clause with *when*.

10. Introduce an adjective clause with *when*.

11. Introduce an adverbial clause with *when*.

12. Introduce a substantive clause with *where*.

13. Introduce an adjective clause with *where*.

14. Introduce an adverbial clause with *where*.

15. Compose sentences whose grammatical subjects are clauses introduced with *that*, *who*, *what*, *how*.

16. Compose sentences whose verbs are completed by clauses introduced with *how*, *if*, *wherever*, *whoever*, *whether*.

17. Use as the objects of verbs clauses introduced with *that*, *how*, *what*, *if*, *whether*.

18. Introduce an attributive complement: (1) with *in*; (2) with *of*.

19. Introduce an adjective phrase: (1) with *of*; (2) with *for*; (3) with *to*.

20. Introduce an adverbial phrase: (1) with *in*; (2) with *to*; (3) with *for*; (4) with *by*.

21. Introduce an adjective clause: (1) with *who*; (2) with *that*; (3) with *which*; (4) with *whom*; (5) with *what*; (6) with *whence*.

22. Introduce an adverbial clause denoting place: (1) with *where*; (2) with *whither*.

23. Introduce an adverbial clause denoting time: (1) with *when*; (2) with *while*.

24. Introduce adverbial clauses denoting manner and degree: (1) with *as*; (2) with *than*.

25. Introduce an adverbial clause denoting cause: (1) with *because*; (2) with *since*; (3) with *for*.

26. Introduce an adverbial clause denoting condition: (1) with *if*; (2) with *unless*; (3) with *though*.

LESSON XXX.

THE SENTENCE — ANALYSIS.

Analysis in grammar is the process of separating a sentence into its elements.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

1. Read the sentence and state its kind.
2. Pick out: (1) the bare subject; (2) the complete subject; (3) the bare predicate; (4) the complete predicate.
3. If any of the elements are inverted, arrange them in their natural order.
4. If necessary, supply the ellipsis.
5. If an element is complex or compound, resolve it into its simple elements.

The **elements** of a sentence are the *words, phrases, and clauses* that perform distinct offices in that sentence.

A **simple element** consists of a single *word, phrase, or clause*, unmodified; as, A *wealthy* man; a man *of wealth*; a man *who is wealthy*.

A **complex element** consists of a single *word, phrase, or clause*, and a modifying element; as, A *very wealthy* man; a man *of immense wealth*; a man *who is immensely wealthy*.

A compound element consists of two or more simple or complex elements joined by a coördinate conjunction; as, *Wise and good; of wisdom and of goodness; with great power and with great ability; that the earth is round and that it revolves.*

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

The readiest pupils of this class study diligently at home.

MODEL.—I. It is a simple sentence because it contains but one proposition; declarative because it makes a statement. The bare subject is *pupils*, the complete subject is *The readiest pupils of this class*; the bare predicate is *study*, the complete predicate is *study diligently at home*. The bare subject is modified by *The readiest*, and of *this class*, adjective-terms. The bare predicate is modified by *diligently* and *at home*, adverb-terms.

The gentleman from Boston who called yesterday morning left for home in the afternoon.

MODEL.—II. It is a complex, declarative sentence because it is composed of an independent proposition, a dependent proposition, and states a fact. The independent proposition is *The gentleman from Boston left for home in the afternoon*. The dependent proposition is *who called yesterday morning*.

The bare subject of the principal proposition is *gentleman*, the complete subject is *The gentleman from Boston who called yesterday morning*; the bare predicate is *left*, the complete predicate is *left for home in the afternoon*.

The bare subject of the principal proposition is modified by *The, from Boston*, and *who called yesterday morning*, adjective-terms. The bare predicate is modified by *for home* and *in the afternoon*, adverb-terms.

ANALYSIS OF THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE.

Who is the subject and connective; *called* is the bare predicate, *called yesterday in the morning* is the complete predicate.

If a man empties his purse into his head, no man can take it away from him.

MODEL.—III. It is a complex, declarative sentence, because it is composed of an independent proposition, a dependent proposition, and states a fact. The independent proposition is *no man can take it away from him*. The dependent proposition is *If a man empties his purse into his head*.

The bare subject of the principal proposition is *man*, the complete subject is *no man*; the bare predicate is *can take*, the complete predicate is *can take it away from him*. The bare subject of the principal proposition is modified by *no*, an adjective-term. The bare predicate is modified by its object *it*, *away from him*, and *If a man empties his purse into his head*.

ANALYSIS OF THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE.

MODEL.—IV. *Man* is the bare subject, *a man* the complete subject; *empties* is the bare predicate, *empties his purse into his head* the complete predicate. *If* is the connective, and joins the adverbial clause to the predicate of the principal proposition.

A little girl, finding a wild violet, exclaimed, “How glad I am to see you!”

MODEL.—V. It is a complex, declarative sentence. The principal proposition is the entire sentence. The bare subject is *girl*, the complete subject is *A little girl, finding a wild violet*; the bare predicate is *exclaimed*, the complete predicate is *exclaimed, “How glad I am to see you!”*

ANALYSIS OF THE SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE.

MODEL.—VI. It is a simple, exclamatory sentence. *I* is both the bare and complete subject; *am* is the bare predicate, *am glad to see you* the complete predicate. *How* is an intensive adverb used to emphasize the entire sentence.

A fool speaks all his mind, but a wise man reserves something for hereafter.

MODEL.—VII. It is a compound, declarative sentence, because it is composed of two coördinate sentences, joined by the conjunction *but*.

ANALYSIS OF THE FIRST MEMBER.

It is a simple, declarative sentence. The bare subject is *fool*, the complete subject is *A fool*; the bare predicate is *speaks*, the complete predicate is *speaks all his mind*. The bare subject is modified by *A*, an adjective-term. The bare predicate is modified by its object *mind*, which is modified by *all* and *his*, adjective-terms.

ANALYSIS OF THE SECOND MEMBER.

It is a simple, declarative sentence, connective *but*. The bare subject is *man*, the complete subject is *a wise man*; the bare predicate is *reserves*, the complete predicate is *reserves something for hereafter*. The bare subject is modified by *a* and *wise*, adjective-terms. The bare predicate is modified by its object, *something*, and the phrase *for hereafter*, an adverb-term.

He who receives a good turn should never forget it;
he who does one should never remember it.

MODEL.—VIII. It is a compound-complex sentence; compound because it is composed of two coördinate sentences; complex because each member is composed of an independent and a dependent proposition.

ANALYSIS OF THE FIRST MEMBER.

It is a complex sentence. The independent proposition is *He should never forget it*, the dependent proposition is *who receives a good turn*.

ANALYSIS OF THE SECOND MEMBER.

It is a complex sentence. The independent proposition is *He should never remember it*, the dependent proposition is *who does one*.

The members of a compound sentence may be compound; as,

He spoke, and it was done; he commanded, and it held fast.

Run if you like, but try to keep your breath;

Work like a man, but don't be worked to death.

Trust men, and they will be true to you; treat them greatly, and they will show themselves great.

One or more members of a compound sentence may be complex; as,

If thine enemy hunger, give him bread; if he be thirsty, give him water.

He that observeth the winds shall not sow, and he that regardeth the clouds shall not reap.

He who has a thousand friends hath not a friend to spare,
And he who has one enemy shall meet him everywhere.

The tongue is the key-board of the soul; but it makes a world of difference who sits to play upon it.

God gives thee youth but once;
Keep, then, the childlike heart that will
His kingdom be.
Speak clearly, if you speak at all;
Carve every word before you let it fall. — *Holmes.*

All the hedges are white with dust, and the great dog under
the creaking wain

Hangs his head in the lazy heat, while onward the horses toil
and strain.

The connective may be omitted; as,

The way was long, the wind was cold.
The minstrel was infirm and old.

You cannot dream yourself into a character; you must hammer and forge yourself one. — *Froude.*

Duty and to-day are ours; results and futurity belong to God.

Knowledge dwells in heads replete with thoughts of other men; wisdom in minds attentive to their own.

NOTE.—In analyzing a compound sentence which contains *nor* or *neither* and *nor*, it will be necessary to put in an adverb of negation.

The compound sentence, The boy was not clever, nor was he good, may be separated into: 1. The boy was not clever. 2. He was [*not*] good.

Similarly the compound sentence, He neither came early nor went away late, may be separated into: 1. He came [*not*] early. 2. [He] went [*not*] away late.

LESSON XXXI.

Analyze the following sentences :

TO THE TEACHER: Require the pupil to express, in his own language, the meaning of the sentence before you permit him to attempt its formal analysis. Analysis is but a means to an end.

In the proximate analysis of complex sentences, clauses should be regarded as *nouns*, *adjectives*, and *adverbs*. Make it clear that a clause is a dependent sentence—that standing alone it does not make complete sense. Show that a clause does the work of a single part of speech—that the mind regards it as a unit.

In the ultimate analysis of the elements of a complex sentence, the clauses should be resolved into their component parts, and analyzed as dependent sentences.

1. Habit is the deepest law of human nature. — *Carlyle*.
2. In character, in manners, in style, in all things, the supreme excellence is simplicity. — *Longfellow*.
3. The book which makes a man think the most, is the book which strikes the deepest root in his memory and understanding.
4. What I must do is all that concerns me, not what people think. — *Emerson*.
5. Hands that the rod of empire might have swayed
Close at my elbow stir the lemonade. — *Holmes*.
6. He who is taught to live upon little, owes more to his father's wisdom than he that has a great deal left him does to his father's care. — *Wm. Penn*.
7. If you have built castles in the air, your work need not be lost; that is where they should be built; now put foundations under them. — *Thoreau*.

8. A man's first care should be to avoid the reproaches of his own heart; his next to escape the censures of the world. If the last interferes with the former, it ought to be entirely neglected.

— *Addison*.

9. Nature is no spendthrift, but takes the shortest way to her ends. — *Emerson*.

10. Nature, like a cautious testator, ties up her estate so as not to bestow all on one generation; but has a forelooking tenderness and equal regard to the next, and the next, and the fourth, and the fortieth. — *Emerson*.

11. We know not whither the hunter went,
Or how the last of his days was spent;
For the moon drew nigh — but he came not back
Weary and faint from his forest track. — *Whittier*.

12. I hate anything that occupies more space than it is worth. I hate to see a load of bandboxes going along the street, and I hate to see a parcel of big words without anything in them.

— *Haslitt*.

13. The flowers fade, the heart withers, man grows old and dies, the world lies down in the sepulchre of ages; but Time writes no wrinkles on the brow of Eternity. — *Bishop Heber*.

14. The one prudence in life is concentration; the one evil is dissipation. — *Emerson*.

15. It is surprising to what simple terms the profoundest and grandest ideas can be reduced by a great thinker who has perfectly mastered his subject. — *Newton Bateman*.

16. This above all: to thine own self be true,
And it must follow, as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man. — *Shakespeare*.

17. Every blade of grass in the field is measured; the green cups and the colored crowns of every flower are curiously counted; the stars of the firmament wheel in calculated orbits; even the storms have their laws. — *Blakie*.

18. Our grand business is not to see what lies dimly at a distance; but to do what lies clearly at hand. — *Carlyle*.

19. In peace, Love tunes the shepherd's reed;
In war he mounts the warrior's steed;
In halls in gay attires is seen,
In hamlets, dances on the green.
Love rules the court, the camp, the grove,
And men below, and gods above;
For love is heaven, and heaven is love. — *Scott*.
20. I held it truth, with him who sings
To one clear harp in divers tones,
That men may rise on stepping-stones
Of their dead selves to higher things. — *Tennyson*.
21. The eyes of other people are the eyes that ruin us. If all but myself were blind, I should want neither fine clothes, fine houses, nor fine furniture. — *Franklin*.
22. The imprudent man reflects on what he has said; the wise man on what he is going to say.
23. When a deed is done for freedom, through the broad
earth's aching breast
Runs a thrill of joy prophetic, trembling on from east
to west. — *Lowell*.
24. Who gives a trifle meanly, is meaner than a trifle.
— *Lavater*.
25. And, as I passed by, I heard the complaints of the laborers who had reaped down his fields, and the cries of the poor whose covering he had taken away.
26. I hope I shall always possess firmness and virtue enough to maintain what I consider the most enviable of all titles, the character of an honest man. — *Washington*.
27. To live in hearts we leave behind
Is not to die. — *Campbell*.
28. The best part of our knowledge is that which teaches us where knowledge leaves off and ignorance begins. — *Holmes*.
29. When all was over, Wellington said to Blucher, as he stood by him on a little eminence looking down upon the field covered with the dead and dying, "A great victory is the saddest thing on earth, except a great defeat."

30. To gild refined gold, to paint the lily,
To throw a perfume on the violet,
To smooth the ice, or add another hue
Upon the rainbow, or with taper light
To seek the beauteous eye of heaven to garnish,
Is wasteful and ridiculous excess. — *Shakespeare*.
31. Like leaves on trees the life of man is found,
Now green in youth, now withering on the ground;
Another race the following spring supplies,
They fall successive and successive rise;
So generations in their course decay;
So flourish these, while those have passed away.
— *Pope*.
32. I would not enter on my list of friends
The man who needlessly sets foot upon a worm.
— *Cowper*.
33. Know ye the land where the cypress and myrtle
Are emblems of deeds that are done in their clime?
— *Byron*.
34. Reading furnishes the mind only with materials of knowledge; it is thinking that makes what we read ours. — *Locke*.
35. 'Mid pleasures and palaces though we may roam,
Be it ever so humble, there's no place like home!
A charm from the skies seems to hallow us there,
Which, seek through the world, is ne'er met with elsewhere. — *John Howard Payne*.
36. This is the state of man. To-day he puts forth
The tender leaves of hope; to-morrow blossoms,
And bears his blushing honors thick upon him;
The third day comes a frost, a killing frost;
And when he thinks—good, easy man—full surely
His greatness is a-ripening, nips his root,
And then he falls, as I do. — *Shakespeare*.

37. A man has generally the good or ill qualities which he attributes to mankind. — *Shenstone*.

38. The quality of mercy is not strained,
It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven
Upon the place beneath. — *Shakespeare*.

39. The bird that soars on highest wing
Builds on the ground her lowly nest;
And she that does most sweetly sing,
Sings in the shade when all things rest.
In lark and nighingale we see
What honor hath humility. — *James Montgomery*.

40. When Freedom from her mountain height
Unfurled her standard to the air,
She tore the azure robe of night,
And set the stars of glory there. — *Drake*.

41. The fountain of beauty is the heart, and every generous thought illustrates the walls of your chamber. — *Emerson*.

42. Any life that is worth living must be a struggle, a swimming not with, but against, the stream. — *Dean Stanley*.

43. We cannot help rejoicing in the increasing prominence of the idea that every being whom the world contains has his true place, written in the very makeup of his nature, and that to find that place and make him fit to fill it is the duty of his educators in all their various regards. — *Phillips Brooks*.

44. It would seem to have been especially ordered by Providence, that the discovery of the two great divisions of the American hemisphere should fall to the two races best fitted to conquer and colonize them. — *Prescott*.

45. It has been estimated that the quantity of heat discharged over the Atlantic from the waters of the Gulf Stream, on a winter's day, would be sufficient to raise the column of the atmosphere that rests upon France and the British Isles from the freezing point to summer heat. — *Maury*.

46. Not merely growing, like a tree,
In bulk, doth make man better be;
Or standing long an oak three hundred year,
To fall a log at last, dry, bald and sear.
A lily of a day is fairer far in May,
Although it fall and die that night.
It was the plant and flower of light;
In small proportions, we just beauties see,
And, in short measure, life may perfect be.
— *Ben Jonson.*
47. To him who in the love of nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language: for his gayer hours
She has a voice of gladness, and a smile
And eloquence of beauty; and she glides
Into his darker musings, with a mild
And healing sympathy, that steals away
Their sharpness, e'er he is aware. — *Bryant.*
48. 'Tis not alone through toil and strength of soul
That life's success is always to be won,
(For see how many fail to reach the goal,
Though struggling till their weary lives are done).
But there must be the gift aright to choose
The path which Nature for each life ordains,
Else may the giant through misguidance lose
That which the weaker fellow-mortal gains.
— *Clifford Howard.*
49. Grave is the master's look; his forehead wears
Thick rows of wrinkles, prints of worrying cares;
Uneasy lie the heads of all that rule,
His worst of all whose kingdom is a school.
Supreme he sits; before the awful frown
That binds his brow the boldest eye goes down;
Not more submissive Israel heard and saw
At Sinai's foot the Giver of the Law. — *Holmes.*

LESSON XXXII.

In the following sentences *parse* the words in *italic*.

TO THE TEACHER: The sentences in this lesson have been selected with special reference to the construction of the words printed in *italic*. It is believed that the collection covers about all the peculiar constructions that are recognized by established good usage.

1. I found the urchin, *Cupid, sleeping*.
2. *There* Honor comes, a *pilgrim gray*,
To deck the turf that wraps their clay. — *Collins*.
3. The Spartans called their slaves *Helots*.
4. The man was *without power to move*.
5. Jack has worn his shoes *thin*.
6. *To carry care to bed* is to sleep with a pack on your back.
— *Haliburton*.
7. Atmospheric pressure equals *fifteen pounds* to the square inch.
8. *O strong hearts and true!* not one went back in the May-flower.
9. The clouds hang *heavy and low*.
10. The first message ever sent by a recording telegraph was forwarded May, 1844, between Washington and Baltimore, in these sublime words: "*What hath God wrought!*"
11. The Romans, *however*, were not discouraged by repeated defeats.
12. The king lay *wounded and helpless*.
13. The Duke will not draw back a single *inch*.
14. A single bunch of bananas often weighs *sixty or seventy pounds*.
15. The fog came *pouring in* at every chink and keyhole.
16. The Greeks said grandly, in their tragic phrase,
"*Let no one be called happy till his death.*"

17. *To persevere is one's duty and to be silent is the best answer to calumny. — Washington.*

18. *Blessed is he who has found his work; let him ask no other blessedness. — Carlyle.*

19. Up rose old Barbara Frietchie then
Bowed with her four score years and ten. — *Whittier.*

20. We will paint the wall *blue*.

21. The soldiers nicknamed Jackson "*Old Hickory*."

22. Cowards die many times before their death;
The *valiant* never taste of death but once. — *Shakespeare.*

23. Silently, *one by one*, in the infinite meadows of heaven,
Blossomed the lovely stars, the *forget-me-nots of the angels*.

24. The milk has turned *sour*.

25. *Five times* every year he was to be exposed in the pillory.

26. The ruby-throated humming-bird — *the loveliest one of the whole family* — is a native of the Southern States.

27. On the quarter-deck of the flag-ship stood Admiral Sir John Narborough, *the first seaman in all England*.

28. The doctors pronounced the disease *incurable*.

29. Hawthorne, *even as a boy*, was of a *shy, sensitive nature*.

30. The owl is a nocturnal bird, *pursuing its prey by night and sleeping during the day*.

31. The same son of a tanner was twice elected *president of the United States*.

32. Tenderly her blue eyes glistened, *long time ago*.

33. Not every one that saith unto me, "*Lord! Lord!*" shall enter into the kingdom of heaven. — *Bible*.

34. The *secretary and treasurer* has returned to his office.

35. Attention held them *mute*.

36. Wave your tops, *ye pines*, in sign of worship. — *Milton*.

37. Some call the boy *precocious*.

38. They have always painted the Executive Mansion at Washington *white*.

39. *Soldiers!* from yonder pyramids forty generations of men look down upon you. — *Bonaparte*.

40. *To persist*
In doing wrong, extenuates not wrong,
But makes it much more heavy.
41. He was considered a *martyr*.
42. Harold became *King*.
43. He looks an honest *lad*.
44. Hope springs *eternal* in the human breast.
45. Something yet remains *undone*.
46. Still waters run *deep*.
47. He *looks* quite *through* the deeds of men.
48. It is the mind that makes the body *rich*.
49. The sky looks *threatening*.
50. The *trumpet* having sounded, *both* sides rushed to arms.
51. The *rain* having ceased, we departed.
52. I sent my *friend* a *book*.
53. He made the *captain* a *coat*.
54. Ye *stars*, *shine* on! *See* here, my *boy*!
55. He died a natural *death*.
56. The horse ran a *race*.
57. *To hear* is *to obey*.
58. *Seeing* is *believing*.
59. Your *if* is your only peacemaker.
60. All poetry, *ancient* and *modern*, abounds in sentiment.
61. The tones rang out *clear* and *full*.
62. She wrings the clothes *dry*.
63. She wedded a man, *unlearned* and *poor*.
64. The Spartans, *equally cautious*, waited for a favorable
omen.
65. They elected him *mayor*.
66. Peter, the *hermit*, lived in a cave.
67. The knife is *worth* a *dollar*.
68. She came to the house *weeping*.
69. This is the factory *where* my brother works.
70. The prisoner was sent back to the place *whence* he came.
71. *While* away your time.
72. *As* the tree falls, *so* must it lie.

PART SECOND.

TO THE TEACHER: Before beginning the grade work in *Part Second*, spend at least two months in reviewing *Part First*. Require the pupils to work the *Exercises* again; accept only the best illustrative sentences they can compose. Reviews, if spirited and exacting, deepen impressions.

LESSON I.

TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES.

A sentence is **transformed** when it undergoes a change in the form of any of its elements without material change in the meaning.

The form of a sentence may be changed:

I. By the *expansion*:

1. Of words into phrases.
2. Of words into clauses.
3. Of phrases into clauses.
4. Of phrases into independent propositions.
5. Of clauses into independent propositions.

II. By the *contraction*:

1. Of independent propositions into clauses.
2. Of independent propositions into phrases.
3. Of clauses into phrases.
4. Of clauses into words.
5. Of phrases into words.

EXPANSION.

Simple sentences are made complex :

I. By *expanding* words into clauses ; as,

Every *great and original* action has a prospective greatness. Every action *which is great and original* has a prospective greatness.

II. By *expanding* phrases into clauses ; as,

1. A library of *well-chosen books* is a mine of useful knowledge. A library *that is composed of well-chosen books* is a mine of useful knowledge.

2. Witnesses *proving his innocence* will be produced. Witnesses *who will prove his innocence* will be produced.

3. Cortes came to Mexico *to find gold*. Cortes came to Mexico *that he might find gold*.

4. Napoleon *being exiled*, his adherents lost hope. *When Napoleon was exiled*, his adherents lost hope.

5. They desired *him to occupy the chair*. They desired *that he should occupy the chair*.

Simple sentences are made compound by *expanding* phrases into independent propositions ; as,

The oarsmen, *being fatigued with their difficult journey*, lost the race. *The oarsmen were fatigued with their difficult journey*, therefore they lost the race.

Complex sentences are made compound by *expanding* clauses into independent propositions ; as,

When gold was discovered, the population of California rapidly increased. *Gold was discovered*, and the population of California rapidly increased.

CONTRACTION.

Compound sentences are made complex by *contracting* independent propositions into clauses; as,

He spoke, and it was done. When he spoke, it was done.

Compound sentences are made simple by *contracting* independent propositions into phrases; as,

The people were industrious, therefore they became prosperous. Being industrious, the people became prosperous.

Complex sentences are made simple:

I. By *contracting* clauses into phrases; as,

1. *If he perseveres, he will undoubtedly succeed. By persevering, he will undoubtedly succeed.*

2. The seed *which was sown on wet soil* did not grow. The seed, *having been sown on wet soil*, did not grow.

3. The artist hoped *that he would gain the prize*. The artist hoped *to gain the prize*.

4. *Since his party is defeated*, he will not be appointed. *His party being defeated*, he will not be appointed.

5. I believe *that he is a self-reliant man*. I believe *him to be a self-reliant man*.

II. By *contracting* clauses into words; as,

Pottery that is made in Limoges commands a high price. *Limoges* pottery commands a high price.

Sentences are also contracted by *ellipsis*; as,

1. Huxley was a great scientist. Darwin was a great scientist. Huxley and Darwin *were great scientists*.

2. Peat is a kind of fuel. It is found in Ireland. It is prepared for use by drying in the sun. Peat, a kind of fuel found in Ireland, is prepared for use by drying in the sun.

3. He spoke as he would speak if he were inspired. He spoke as if inspired.

EXERCISE.

I. Expand the following simple sentences into equivalent complex sentences:

1. Blessed are the peacemakers.
2. We saw them approaching the village.
3. We rise by things under our feet.
4. Finding his army surrounded, the general surrendered.
5. We honor the brave.
6. Darkest clouds have often a silver lining.
7. The shadow of the earth in every position is round.
8. The conspirators demanded the assassination of Cæsar.
9. The island, being a coaling station, was made the first point of attack.
10. Men living in tropical countries soon lose their energy.
11. He did not wish me to read the book.
12. The Constitution being adopted, the assembly adjourned.
13. Proceeding up the cañon, we found many beautiful ferns.
14. Antony spoke to arouse the populace.
15. Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast.
16. The river winding, like a silver thread around the mountains, could be seen far below.
17. The trumpet having sounded, the battle began.
18. That majestic rock jutting out into the river was once an Indian stronghold.
19. He wasted his time over unimportant matters.
20. We sat until sunset watching the changing light on the still waters.

II. Expand the following simple or complex sentences into equivalent compound sentences:

1. When Alexander conquered the known world, he sighed for more worlds to conquer.
2. The French possessions east of the Mississippi, excepting a small district around New Orleans, were ceded to England.

3. The Indians proving hostile, the settlers returned to their starting-point.

4. The Alamo, which was so long besieged by the Mexicans, still stands in the city of San Antonio.

5. The pound of flesh which I demand of him is dearly bought.

6. Sand-bars having obstructed the mouth of the river, jetties were built to remove them.

7. Homer, the greatest poet of antiquity, is said to have been blind.

8. The Phœnicians, who were daring navigators, made many voyages to Britain.

9. The public roads, beginning at the Forum, extended in every direction throughout the empire.

10. Their identity being unknown, they were buried in one grave at Arlington.

11. Knowing the independent spirit of the colonists, he feared to restrict their liberties.

12. Adverse criticism, which often disturbs our self-complacency, awakes us to higher ideals.

13. The opening of new factories brought increased prosperity to the city.

14. Wandering from place to place, she vainly sought for the long-lost Gabriel.

15. The influence of a good man, silently making itself felt, is worth many homilies.

III. Contract the following compound sentences into equivalent complex or simple sentences :

1. Do your work, and you shall reinforce yourself.

2. Slaves are human beings; therefore they are entitled to their liberty.

3. Live as though life were earnest, and life will be so.

4. Trust men, and they will be true to you.

5. Italy bought the Bonaparte papers, and they were deposited in the Royal Library at Florence.

6. Resolve to see the world on the sunny side, and you have almost won the battle of life at the outset.

7. "Falstaff" is one of Verdi's greatest operas, yet it was written in his old age.

8. The rain beat upon him, yet he continued his work.

9. The trouble cannot be cured, therefore it must be endured.

10. The waters rose rapidly, and before morning dawned the village had been swept away.

11. He published an account of the voyage, and thus gained great renown.

12. Nature is an inexhaustible storehouse, and man need not fear for his future sustenance.

13. He was a man of uncommon ability, yet he refused to devote his talents to the progress of the nation.

14. The city was under martial law, and the two men narrowly escaped arrest.

IV. Contract the following complex sentences into equivalent simple sentences :

1. The patriots fought that they might gain freedom.

2. Had he been ambitious, he would have become great in his profession.

3. When the nation became contented, it ceased to show intellectual or material progress.

4. Books should not be judged by the passages which are brilliant.

5. The waters of the Gulf Stream become colder as they flow northward.

6. Thoreau chose the silent woods that he might commune with nature.

7. The body which was mourned by a nation was that of the Emperor.

8. Since the medal was conferred for valor, it was doubly prized by the soldiers.

9. Johnson declared that wit consisted in finding out resemblances.

10. When the Confederates were defeated, their money became worthless.

11. Since the navy of England was powerful, few nations engaged her in battle on the sea.

12. It is just that he shall do no more than his share.

13. When a man has not a good reason for doing a thing, he has one good reason for letting it alone.

14. Every law which the State enacts indicates a fact in human nature.

15. They believed that he was worthy of the highest honor.

16. I dare do all that may become a man.

17. Rejoice not when thine enemy falleth.

18. If we ascend the table-land of Mexico, we find the climate cool and invigorating.

19. The oxygen, nitrogen, and carbonic acid which unite to form the atmosphere, are mingled in unequal proportions.

20. Bismarck, who is often called the "Iron Chancellor," saw his dream of an empire realized.

21. The work that has been done by Edison has greatly advanced the science of electricity.

22. Who friendship with a knave has made,
 Is judged a partner in the trade. — *Gay*.

23. When vice prevails and impious men bear sway,
 The post of honor is a private station. — *Addison*.

24. It is no excuse for a fault that you have committed it for the sake of a friend. — *Cicero*.

25. Arms are of little value abroad unless there is wisdom at home.

26. After he had discovered Hispaniola, Columbus returned to Spain.

27. When the shower had passed away, we resumed our journey.

28. When peace of mind is secured, we may smile at misfortune.

29. To an American who visits Europe, the long voyage is an excellent preparative.

30. A man who is deceitful can never be trusted.

LESSON II.

THE SENTENCE — ORDER.

In the English sentence, the meaning as well as the grammatical construction depends upon the arrangement of the parts.

Ambiguity and obscurity result more frequently from disregard or ignorance of the principles of order than from a poor choice of words.

The natural order of words in a sentence is :

I. The *subject*, preceded by word modifiers and followed by phrase and clause modifiers; as,

The cat in mittens catches no mice.

He *that toucheth pitch* shall be defiled therewith.

II. The *predicate*, followed by its object, or complement and modifiers; as,

The tall shrubs bear *many large white* flowers.

The atmosphere of the world was *heavily* charged *with carbonic acid* gas.

The inverted or transposed order is generally used in the construction of the interrogative, the imperative, and the exclamatory sentence.

Departures from the natural order are also made for the purpose of heightening rhetorical effect; as,

1. Is life so dear or peace so sweet as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? — *Henry*.
2. Flashed all their sabres bare. — *Tennyson*.
3. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate. — *Pope*.
4. Him the Almighty Power
Hurled headlong flaming from the ethereal sky. — *Milton*.

Force of expression requires that emphatic words be placed in emphatic positions, usually at the beginning or end of the sentence.

Suspense of meaning, antithesis, and climax, add not only to the force, but also to the clearness of an expression; as,

1. To him who in the love of nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language. — *Bryant*.
2. Man!
Thou pendulum betwixt a smile and tear. — *Byron*.
3. The stream of literature has swollen into a torrent — augmented into a river — expanded into a sea. — *Irving*.

Clearness of expression demands that closely related words, phrases, and clauses, be so placed as to render their mutual relation unmistakable.

The following sentences are ambiguous or obscure in meaning:

1. He hath made him to be sin for us *who knew no sin*.
2. Many citizens came to the assembly *distinguished for liberality of thought*.
3. Tell him *if he is in the house* that I do not care to see him.

Such sentences may be corrected by changing the position of the modifying phrase or clause; as,

1. He hath made him *who knew no sin* to be sin for us.
2. Many citizens, *distinguished for liberality of thought*, came to the assembly.
3. *If he is in the house*, tell him that I do not care to see him.

The adverb is more frequently misplaced than any other part of speech. In the compound tenses it should come between the parts of the verb, but it should not separate the parts of the infinitive.

Only, merely, chiefly, at least, and a few others, which should immediately precede the words which they modify, are commonly misplaced.

EXERCISE.

I. Change the following sentences from the *natural* to the *rhetorical* order:

1. The cries of the wounded were heard above the roar of the artillery.
2. The scientific study of man is the most difficult of all branches of knowledge. — *Holmes*.
3. Concentration is the secret of strength in politics, in war, in trade. — *Emerson*.
4. All the hearts of men were softened
By the pathos of his music. — *Longfellow*.
5. The roses and the myrtles bloomed unchilled on the verge of the avalanche. — *Macaulay*.
6. The setting sun stretched his celestial rods of light across the level landscape. — *Hawthorne*.
7. It is time that we should strike the blow, when our rights are trampled upon.

8. The glaciers creep
Like snakes that watch their prey, from their far
mountains. — *Shelley*.

9. A waterspout fell upon the mountain side, uprooting
trees and devastating farms.

10. King Richard lies
Within the limit of yon lime and stone. — *Shakespeare*.

II. Change the following sentences from the *rhetorical* to the *natural* order :

1. How long we live, not years but actions tell.
2. On that plain, in rosy youth, they had fed their fathers
numerous flocks.
3. A barge across Loch Katrine flew,
High stood the henchman in the bow. — *Scott*.
4. Then shook the hills with thunder riven. — *Campbell*.
5. The noblest mind the best contentment has.
6. Youngest of all was he of the men who came in the
Mayflower. — *Longfellow*.
7. Happy is the nation that has no history.
8. Beyond all wealth, honor, or even health, is the attach-
ment we form to noble souls. — *Dr. Arnold*.
9. Down swept the chill winds from the mountain peak.
10. Pleasantly rose, the next morn, the sun, on the village of
Grand Pré.

III. Correct errors of arrangement in the following
sentences :

MODIFIERS MISPLACED.

1. People ceased to wonder by degrees.
2. By doing the same thing often it becomes habitual.
3. Some virtues are only seen in adversity.
4. She was given a book by a friend that she had never read.
5. The editor wished him to carefully reconstruct the article.

6. The first could only be imputed to the just indignation of the gods. — *Gibbon*.

7. We get salt from the ocean which is very useful to man.

8. Theism can only be opposed to polytheism or atheism.

9. Everyone that applies for a position is not given one.

10. All that glitters is not gold.

11. His conduct at times almost verges upon irreverence.

12. The country has been disappointed greatly in its favorite.

13. To man has been given the power of speech only.

14. The pupils were directed to closely observe the development of the plant.

15. He is unworthy of the confidence of a fellow-being that disregards the laws of his Maker.

16. He apologized when he saw his mistake like a gentleman.

17. I do not think the question will become a party issue.

18. We did not see the president; we merely saw his private secretary for a moment.

19. The captain sent an orderly with the message to the general who was but nineteen years of age.

20. The bishop heard the doubts which De Vaux stated with that acuteness of intelligence which distinguishes the Roman Catholic clergy.

21. He examined the specimen of ore which had been given him attentively.

22. Are these designs which any man, who is born a Briton, in any circumstances, in any situation, ought to be ashamed or afraid to own? — *Bolingbroke*.

23. I have now and then inserted in the text characters of books that I have not read on the faith of my guides. — *Hallam*.

24. There will still remain much of his poetry that can only perish with the English language. — *Macaulay*.

25. Nor indeed can those habits be formed with certainty which are to continue during life in a shorter space.

26. Mr. Carlyle has taught us that silence is golden in thirty volumes. — *Morley*.

27. He ought to be, without doubt, given the credit of the great invention.

28. The reporter sent an account of the sad accident to the morning newspaper.

29. The beaux of that day used the abominable art of painting their faces as well as the women. — *Disraeli*.

Correlative conjunctions should be placed before the same part of speech.

CORRELATIVES MISPLACED.

Correct:

1. They neither brought the cannon nor the ammunition.
2. He shall both judge the quick and the dead.
3. Garfield was not only famous for his ability as a soldier, but for his statesmanship.
4. Hamlet was either insane or he feigned insanity.
5. This man neither sinned, nor his parents.
6. As the sand passes imperceptibly through the hour-glass, so passes the life of man.
7. They either believed it to be an exaggeration or an infamous falsehood.
8. Webster went not only to Boston, but delivered a great speech in Faneuil Hall. — *Bancroft*.
9. Though he failed, he yet strove nobly to retrieve his shattered fortunes.
10. It is said that a man's nature either runs to herbs or to weeds.

PRONOUN AND ANTECEDENT.

The position of every pronoun should be such that the antecedent cannot be mistaken.

Ambiguity may sometimes be avoided by repeating the antecedent, by changing an indirect to a direct quotation, or by recasting the sentence.

The antecedents of the pronouns in the following sentences are not clearly indicated.

Correct:

1. If he fails to find the owner, he will, without doubt, be greatly disappointed.
2. After many years, the father met the son, and he knew him at once.
3. He had three acres of green-houses filled with rare plants. One of them was an eighth of a mile long.
4. The firm has dissolved, the senior partner continuing the business, and the junior member retiring to private life. If you ask him, you may obtain a position.
5. Place a college graduate in a position inferior to that of the non-college young man, and he will quickly overtake him and soon pass him by.

IMPROPER ELLIPSES.

When the omission of words for the purpose of securing brevity results in obscurity of meaning, the ellipsis should be supplied.

Supply the necessary words:

1. I cannot remember one of their statements.
2. Roger Williams was banished the colony.
3. I would much rather live with an honest boor than a false gentleman.
4. He is still in the situation you saw him.
5. I gladly shunned who gladly fled from me.
6. That is a property most men have or may attain.
7. Being alarmed at the delay, we sent a messenger for him.

LESSON III.

CAPITALIZATION — PUNCTUATION.

CAPITALIZATION.

The following are the principal rules for the use of capital letters :

Begin with a **capital** :

I. The first word of every sentence, of every line of poetry, of every direct quotation, maxim or question, and of phrases, clauses or statements of a series separately numbered ; as,

They are slaves who fear to speak
For the fallen and the weak ;
They are slaves who will not choose
Hatred, scoffing, and abuse,
Rather than in silence shrink
From the truth they needs must think ;
They are slaves who dare not be
In the right with two or three. — *Lowell*.

Spencer says, " To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge."

Remember the maxim, " Diligence is the mother of good luck."

The important question is, " How can our municipal government be improved."

We will consider: 1. Their government. 2. Their religion.
3. Their race characteristics.

II. Proper nouns, proper adjectives, points of the compass when used as nouns, and common nouns when strongly personified; as,

Thomas Carlyle.

South American enterprises.

The West contains the resources of the nation.

O Life! how pleasant is thy morning.

III. Names applied to Deity, names of religious sects, of political parties, of days of the week, of months, and of holidays; as,

Our Father. The Republican Party.

Episcopalians. Monday. December. Christmas.

IV. Every important word in the titles of books, essays, or poems, titles of office or honor used to designate particular individuals, and names of important events or of epochs of time in history; as,

Mosses from an Old Manse.

Controller Calonne. The Renaissance.

The pronoun I and the interjection O, (not *oh*), are always capitals.

PUNCTUATION.

The **period** is used:

I. At the close of every declarative or imperative sentence; as,

The secret of success is constancy of purpose. — *Disraeli*.

Give thy thoughts no tongue. — *Shakespeare*.

NOTE.—The interrogation point should be used at the close of a declarative sentence ending with a direct question; as, He said, "Where shall I go?"

II. After headings, titles or signatures; as,

The Sentence.

Reviews in English Grammar. Frederick King.

III. To denote an abbreviation, to mark Roman numerals, and as the decimal point; as,

A. D. MDCCCXCVI. 5.25.

The **interrogation** point is used at the end of every direct question; as,

Can gray hairs render folly honorable?

He demanded, "Who goes there?"

What his thoughts might be? His plans for finishing the Terror? One knows not. — *Carlyle*.

The **exclamation** point is used after exclamatory words, phrases, and sentences; as,

August! Reign, thou fire-month!

O, the long and dreary Winter!

This is I, Hamlet, the Dane!

The **colon** is used :

I. To separate the principal members of a compound sentence, if either member contains a semicolon; as,

Homer was the greater genius; Virgil, the better artist: in the one, we most admire the man; in the other, the work.

II. Before direct, formal quotations, or a series of statements; as,

Robespierre speaks of the future in these words: "Death is the commencement of immortality."

Their claims to the territory are these: First, by right of discovery; second, by right of grant from the government; third, by colonization.

III. Between the members of a compound sentence, not closely connected; as,

You have regained the confidence of your employer: lose it not again.

The **semicolon** is used:

I. To separate the parts of a compound sentence where the colon or period would indicate too long a pause; as,

Man is a torch borne in the wind; a dream
But of a shadow. — *Chapman*.

II. To separate clauses and phrases in a series having a common dependence; as,

The chemic lump arrives at the plant, and grows; arrives at the quadruped, and walks; arrives at the man, and thinks.
— *Emerson*.

III. To precede words which introduce an illustrative phrase; as,

Man has certain inalienable rights; namely, life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

The **comma** is used:

I. To separate the short members of a compound sentence when closely connected; as,

I think, therefore I am. — *Descartes*.

II. To separate the subject from the predicate when the former is long, complicated, or ends with a verb and the predicate begins with one; as,

He who refuses to be dismayed at small failures, is rarely discouraged by great ones. Whatever is, is right.

III. To separate adjective phrases or clauses, when not restrictive, from the words which they modify; as,

Being weary, they lay down to rest.

De Soto discovered a river, which the Indians called Mesaseba.

IV. To separate introductory adverbial phrases or clauses from the words which they modify; as,

The hour having arrived, the gavel fell.

If you question my sincerity, release me from the obligation.

V. To separate a series of words or phrases in the same construction; as,

Of Him, and to Him, and through Him are all things.

Self-reliance, self-restraint, self-control, self-discipline, — these constitute an educated will.—*James Freeman Clarke.*

VI. To separate contrasted elements; as,

We live in deeds, not years.

VII. Before short, informal quotations; as,

Disraeli aptly says, "Apologies count only for what they do not alter."

VIII. To separate appositive, parenthetical, or independent elements from the rest of the sentence; as,

Goethe, the writer, was a representative man.

He is, nevertheless, worthy of admiration.

Plato, thou reasonest well!

IX. To indicate ellipsis, as,

Search others for virtues, thyself for thy vices. — *Franklin.*

Quotation marks are used:

I. To enclose words in the language of another; as,

"That is active duty," say the Hindoos, "which is not for our bondage."

II. To enclose titles of books, essays, newspapers, etc., when not otherwise distinguished; as,

“Toilers of the Sea” is one of Hugo’s strongest novels.

The **dash** is used:

To indicate an abrupt change in the construction or the thought of a sentence; as,

From all around —

Earth and her waters, and depths of air —

Comes a still voice. — *Bryant*.

Marks of parenthesis are used to enclose explanatory remarks that are not grammatically connected with the sentence; as,

Agassiz says (and he is our best authority) that America is the old world.

Brackets enclose words inserted in quotations for the sake of explanation; as,

“They [the Indians] are fast disappearing.”

The **apostrophe** is used to show the possessive case of nouns, to denote the plural of figures and letters, and to mark the omission of letters; as,

The sun’s rays. 2’s. A’s. I can’t go.

The **hyphen** is used between the parts of a compound word, to divide a word into syllables, and to mark the division of a word at the end of a line; as,

Rain-bow. Beau-ti-ful. The Senate and the Tribunate declared Napoleon Emperor of the French.

LESSON IV.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

Grammar is the science that treats of the general principles of language.

English grammar treats of the principles and usages of the English language.

Syntax is that part of grammar which treats of the construction of sentences; the proper arrangement of words in sentences according to established usage. It treats of the *agreement*, *government*, and *position* of the parts of speech.

In the syntax of words, we recognize a *correct*, an *incorrect*, and a *peculiar* use.

Agreement is the similarity of the parts of speech in their properties; as, a plural noun and a plural verb are said to agree in number; a masculine pronoun referring to a noun of the masculine gender is said to agree with it in gender.

Government is the power that some parts of speech are said to have in determining the properties of others; as, a preposition requires its object to be in the objective case; a transitive verb requires that its complement shall be in the objective case; a plural subject demands a plural verb.

The limiting adjective *the* should be omitted before proper and abstract nouns when used in their general signification.

The limiting adjective *the* should be repeated before each part of a coördinate combination when the nouns apply to objects individually different.

VII. The verb must agree with its subject in person and number; as,

The boy *runs*. The boys *run*.

She *is* here. They *are* here.

I *was* early. They *were* early.

I *am* convinced of his innocence.

They *are* convinced of his innocence.

Like the pronoun, the form of the verb is determined chiefly by the meaning of the governing word.

Thus, the verb is singular:

When the subject is a collective noun denoting many considered as a whole; as,

A regiment *was* sent to the frontier.

The legislature *was* in session three months.

When the subject has a coördinate construction, the members of which, considered separately or together, convey *unity* of idea.

The following sentences illustrate the use of a singular verb with a coördinate subject:

She *was* the intelligence, the gravity, and the self-command of Cromwell's warriors. — *Macaulay*.

Every plant and every animal *is* an essential part of the great plan of nature.

Our work, and not our theories, *defines* us.

The teacher, as well as her pupils, *is* a student.

The verb is plural:

When the subject is a collective noun denoting *multitude*; as,

The people *demand* obedience to the law.

The council *were divided* in their opinion.

When the subject has a coördinate construction, the members of which, considered separately or together, convey *plurality* of idea; as,

Enough *were* present to make a quorum.

A number of persons *were* injured.

Honesty, industry, and sobriety *are* his chief characteristics.

When the members of the coördinate subject are of different numbers and persons, the verb generally agrees with the one nearest to it; as,

Either the foreman or some of his assistants *are* responsible for the mistake.

This rule does not conform to the best usage, however, and where possible the structure of the sentence should be changed; as,

The foreman *is* responsible for the mistake, or some of his assistants *are*.

VIII. The present infinitive should follow the past tense of the verb, except when the time indicated by the infinitive is prior to that indicated by the verb; as,

I intended *to go* yesterday.

They believed him *to have been* dealt with unjustly.

LESSON V.

Correct the following errors in construction :

TO THE TEACHER: Require the pupil to rise, read the sentence aloud, correct it, and show why it is incorrect. Incorrect forms of expression are discontinued only by a reflective and persistent use of correct ones.

RULE I.

1. Those whom he believed would be worthy of confidence betrayed his trust.
2. She has investigated the matter more closely than him.
3. It is not for such as us to sit with the rulers of the land.
4. You can recite the poem as well as her.
5. Them that seek wisdom will be wise.
6. Is she as tall as me? — *Shakespeare*.
7. They have decided that us pupils must finish the work that we began.
8. She was neither better nor wiser than you or me.
9. The member whom they believed would advocate the measure has left the capital.
10. He is a man whom I think will be just in his decisions.

RULE II.

1. Whom do you think he is?
2. It was she that said so, not me.
3. Who do you believe it to be?
4. Seated on an upright tombstone was a strange, unearthly figure, whom, Gabriel felt at once, was no being of this world.
5. I should never have imagined it to be he.
6. It was him who framed the Declaration of Independence.
7. Is service real, if we do not know whom it is we serve?
8. It is not I, but him you should blame.
9. The woman that stands accused may be her that we seek.

10. I believed you to be he who, I thought, was my friend in former years.

11. It could not have been him who said that.

RULE III.

1. They that favor me, I will favor.

2. Will you permit my friend and I to call upon you?

3. Everyone but he had left the building.

4. Who did you speak to this evening?

5. It is best to select they that are strongest.

6. We will let the strong go forth to battle, and he that is weak keep guard over the city.

7. Who did they send for when counsel was desired?

8. We should fear and obey the author of our being, even he who has power to reward or punish us.

9. Suspecting not only you, but they also, we avoided all overtures of friendship.

10. I asked the soldier under who he served.

11. He has been denouncing we poor peasants.

12. The colonel permitted my comrade and I to leave the camp for the day.

13. They did not think of seeing he or I.

14. He, it is a pleasure to meet after a day of toil.

15. They that are unselfish, we should admire.

16. Both men made an able argument, yet it is doubtful who the committee will choose.

17. They refused admittance to the secretary and I, lest their secrets be disclosed.

18. In his distress he did not know who to ask for help.

19. Who can we trust when all seem dishonest.

20. The manager has requested you and I to report to him at his office this evening.

21. The man who he raised from obscurity is dead.

22. They did not think of seeing you or I.

RULE IV.

1. They have slain my friend, he whom I loved more than my own life.
2. That man has overturned an empire, him at whom we jeered but two short days ago.
3. We stood side by side, him and me, not knowing when the end would come.
4. It was the director of the works, him you wished to see.
5. The senator, him whom you criticised, has been commended by his constituents.

RULE V.

1. Not one of the entire crew could write their own name.
2. A civilized people should see that their laws are executed.
3. Each thought of the friend who loved them the best.
4. He is one of those men who would willingly sacrifice himself in serving his country.
5. When a stream or mountain obstructed the way, they were crossed with much difficulty.
6. If thy hand or foot offend thee, cut them off.
7. Society is not always answerable for the questionable conduct of their members.
8. Each loudly lamented their lot.
9. A good education is that which gives to the body and to the soul all the beauty and all the perfection of which it is capable.
10. Many a youth will sacrifice their good name for a trifle.

RULE VI.

1. Those order of goods is to be shipped immediately.
2. They have been waiting this seven hours for relief.
3. The Puritans believed those sort of settlers to be very undesirable.
4. These kind of shells are greatly prized by the Indians.
5. Those set of books was sent to me from London.

RULE VII.

1. Every one that remained in the boat were lost.
2. The news of the disaster were telegraphed to the General's headquarters at once.
3. A succession of failures have discouraged them.
4. The Incas, in whose dominions was found gold, silver, and precious stones, were conquered by Pizarro.
5. No chance, no destiny, no fate, interfere with the resolve of a determined soul.
6. The legislature have been summoned by the Governor for a special session.
7. Neither the wind nor the waves have wrecked the vessel.
8. The number of books in the library certainly do not exceed two thousand.
9. The greatest good to the greatest number constitute an important principle of government.
10. Wisdom, virtue, and happiness dwells in his heart.
11. Much does human pride and complacency require correction.
12. The captain with the first mate have gone aloft.
13. The House of Commons are composed of members elected by the people.
14. The crowd in the Haymarket Square were rapidly becoming riotous.
15. Quality and not quantity are to be desired.
16. Chopin was one of the greatest pianists that has ever lived.
17. Economy as well as industry are necessary to a successful business life.
18. The ebb and flow of the tides were explained by Newton.
19. General Sherman with his veterans have cut the Confederacy in two.
20. "Lives of the Poets" were written by Johnson.

RULE VIII.

1. I intended to have requested this indulgence.
2. He expected to have received an appointment as consul.
3. We had hoped to have seen you before you left.
4. Napoleon is supposed to have many grave faults.
5. We neglected to have appraised the goods.
6. They were willing to have given the keys into his keeping.
7. Gray might perhaps have been able to have rendered him more temperate in his political views.
8. He would have thought it unkind to have persisted in the inquiry.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The following sentences are faulty as regards the order of the words. The meaning is not free from ambiguity, and rearrangement is necessary :

1. I saw many dead soldiers riding across the battle-field.
2. A man was run over in Cheapside this morning by a cab while drunk.
3. His success is neither the result of system nor strategy.
4. Lost near the market-place a large Spanish blue gentleman's cloak.
5. He seldom took up the Bible, which he frequently did, without shedding tears.
6. The beaux of that day used the abominable art of painting their faces as well as the women.
7. Erected to the memory of John Phillips accidentally shot as a mark of affection by his brother.
8. We regret to say that a mad dog yesterday bit the editor of the *Western News* and several other dogs.

Many sentences are faulty owing to incoherence of thought, although they may contain no violation of grammatical rules.

LESSON VI.

LETTER WRITING.

Custom has established certain forms which should be observed in writing letters.

The parts of a letter are: 1, *Heading*; 2, *Introduction*; 3, *Body*; 4, *Conclusion*; 5, *Superscription*.

I. The **heading** includes the place at which the letter is written and the date of writing. It should contain all the particulars needed for directing the reply.

II. The **introduction** consists of the address of the person or firm to whom the letter is written and the salutation.

In familiar letters, the address is usually omitted.

The **salutation** varies according to the degree of intimacy between the correspondents.

III. The **body** of a letter contains the message. It may begin on the same line with the salutation, or on the next line below, a little farther to the right.

IV. The **conclusion** consists of the complimentary close and the signature. The complimentary close should correspond in point of familiarity with the salutation. The following are some of the most usual forms of the conclusion.

V. The **superscription** includes the name and the address of the person for whom the letter is intended, written upon the envelope. It should in all cases be plain and definite.

Note carefully the arrangement, capitalization, and punctuation of the following headings and superscriptions :

MODEL I.

St. Louis, Mo., July 5, 1897.

A. C. McClurg & Co.

Chicago, Ill.

Gentlemen :

(Body of Letter.)

Respectfully Yours,

John H. Smith.

MODEL II.

Independence, Mo., July 10, 1897.

Mrs. J. A. Adams,

Boston, Mass.

Dear Madam :

In reply to your letter,

(Body of Letter.)

I am,

Very truly yours,

John L. Jones.

MODEL III.

Chicago, Ill., July 8, 1897.

My dear Mr. Jones:

(Body of Letter.)

Cordially yours,

Frank H. Smithson.

NOTES OF CEREMONY.

Notes of ceremony are of two kinds — *informal* and *formal*.

Informal invitations, acceptances and regrets are simply friendly notes, and should be expressed in plain, familiar language, and written in the first person.

INFORMAL NOTES.

MODEL IV.

2903 Olive St.

My dear Miss Williams:

Will you not give us the pleasure of your company at dinner, on Thursday evening next, at seven o'clock? Miss Barrington of Concord is our guest for a short time, and we are inviting a few friends to dine with us on Thursday to meet her.

With sincere regards,

Very cordially yours,

June 19, 1897.

Laura C. Spencer.

MODEL V.

June 19, 1897.

My dear Mrs. Spencer:

It will give me the greatest pleasure to dine with you on Thursday next and meet your friend Miss Barrington. Believe me always,

Sincerely yours,

32 East 59th St.

Ellen Williams.

FORMAL NOTES.

Formal notes are always expressed in the third person and in formal and dignified language.

MODEL VI.

*Mr. and Mrs. Charles L. Harrington
request the pleasure of
Miss Evelyn Hall's company
at dinner on Wednesday,
December fifth, 1891, at seven o'clock,
896 Fifth Avenue.*

MODEL VII.

*Miss Evelyn Hall
accepts with pleasure
Mr. and Mrs. Charles L. Harrington's
invitation to dinner at seven o'clock,
Wednesday evening, December fifth.*

Business letters should be short and to the point.

Make it a point to answer business letters promptly.

Business letters should be *concise, explicit, and courteous*. The information given or desired should be stated in the fewest possible words. All social and friendly items should be rigidly excluded.

Though a business letter should be brief, it need not be abrupt. Abruptness in even the briefest letter may be avoided by due attention to the salutation and complimentary close.

If a business letter be an answer to one received, reference should be made to the letter in question, its date given, and enclosures, if any, acknowledged.

Business letters should be written on one side of the paper only, and it is a good plan to keep copies. Dates and sums should be written plainly in figures.

Enclose a stamp for reply when asking a special favor. Acknowledge all favors immediately.

When writing to a stranger, a woman should prefix (Miss) or (Mrs.) to her signature.

Place the stamp carefully, right side up, on the upper right-hand corner of the envelope.

Be neat. A soiled, blotted, slovenly written, or awkwardly folded letter is an insult to the recipient and a reflection upon yourself.

Be accurate. Errors in arrangement, grammar, spelling, punctuation, or capitalization brand you as careless, if not illiterate.

Be cautious as to what you write. Remember,
“ Words spoken are trifles, words written are things.”

EXERCISE.

1. Write five Headings.
2. Write five Introductions.
3. Write five Conclusions.
4. Write five Superscriptions.
5. Write a formal invitation to a party.
6. Write an informal invitation to a party.
7. Write accepting an invitation.
8. Write declining an invitation.
9. Write a letter, describing a real or an imaginary visit to the seashore, the mountains, or Niagara Falls.
10. Write a letter, describing a visit to the World's Fair; tell why it is held, and the results of such an exposition.
11. Write a letter, renewing your subscription to “ The Youth's Companion.” State how much money you enclose and in what form.
12. Write to the publishers of a local newspaper, asking them to change your paper to a new address.
13. Write a letter for your mother to B. Nugent & Bro., Cor. Broadway and Washington Ave., St. Louis, Mo., asking for samples of dress goods. State the kind you want and the price you are willing to pay.
14. Write an application for a position as teacher. State briefly your qualifications and experience and give references.
15. Write an answer to an advertisement for a stenographer. State your experience and give references.
16. Write to a person of influence, asking him for a recommendation.
17. Write a note for your mother, asking your teacher to excuse your absence from school.
18. Write to the president of a college, asking for information in regard to attending the school over which he presides.

19. Write a letter to Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston, Mass., asking for price-list of their publications.

20. In the name of your mother, write a formal note to a gentleman and his wife, asking them to spend an evening at your home. Write a formal acceptance to this note; also a formal regret.

21. Condense the following telegram into ten words: We have received your letter. The goods which you wish will be in to-morrow. We will fill your order as soon as they arrive.

22. Condense into as few words as possible the following telegram: Our train was too late to make connection with the train which leaves here at seven o'clock. We will come down on the next one, and will arrive there about noon.

23. Write a telegram of not more than ten words to your father telling of your mother's illness and asking him to come home immediately.

24. Write to a grocer in your town, ordering a bill of groceries. Ask him to charge it to your account.

25. Write the letter of a girl or boy who has spent Thanksgiving day at "Grandpa's," in the country. Use any names and places you wish.

26. Write a letter to a friend whom you have just visited, telling of your arrival home, how much you enjoyed your visit, and expressing thanks for courtesies.

27. Write a note to accompany a birthday gift to a friend. Write the note of thanks in reply.

28. Write a letter of introduction for a friend to another friend who lives in a neighboring city.

29. Write a letter to one who has assisted you in securing a position, expressing your thanks for his assistance.

30. Write a letter to a friend, describing a visit to the St. Louis Exposition.

31. Write the letter of a boy or a girl who is away from home at school for the first time. Tell his or her impressions of the school, school mates, and so forth.

32. Write to James Vick, Rochester, N. Y., ordering five varieties of flower seed, ten cents a package. Enclose payment by money order.

33. Answer an advertisement for a position in a business office. Say where you saw the advertisement, state your age, school advantages, how much pay you will expect, and give references.

34. Suppose you have received word from the Postmaster at St. Joseph, Mo., informing you that an unclaimed package of books is held there subject to your order and nine cents postage. Write to the Postmaster, enclose postage, and ask him to forward the books to Miss Mary Arnot, Columbia, Mo.

35. Write J. B. Cline & Co., St. Louis, Mo., applying for a clerkship. Testimonials: Previous experience, habits of life. Effort to do satisfactory work. Immediate reply desired. Superscription.

36. Write a letter to a clergyman of your acquaintance asking for a letter of introduction to a business man in a neighboring city, of whom you expect to seek employment. Write the clergyman's reply and the letter of introduction.

37. As clerk for H. W. Green and Co., Ashtabula, Ohio, write to the Freight Agent of the L. S. and M. S. Ry., inquiring about delay in a shipment of goods consigned to your firm. Give date of shipment, by whom sent, and how marked.

38. Write to a furniture dealer in your town asking for prices and terms of sale of a desk; state the kind of desk you want, size, and what you are willing to pay.

39. Write a friendly letter to some boy or girl whom you know telling of the events of the week, and asking for some information. Place the date on the first two lines at the right, and begin on the third line at the left with his name.

LESSON VII.

COMPOSITION.

Composing is one of the most important agencies in developing power to think and in a mastery of expression. It is one of the greatest instrumentalities in the acquisition of knowledge; because to write a thoroughly good composition on any subject requires a comprehensive view of it as a whole, a knowledge of detail, and a discriminative appreciation of the essentials.

TO TEACHER AND PUPIL: Pupils learn to do only by doing. The mere recitation of rules and laws will not give a correct use of rules and laws. If most of the time now spent in many schools in reciting the facts of grammar were spent in expressing original thought, it would not be long until the average high school graduate could write a correct application for a situation, or express, in ten words, a ten-word message. He cannot do it now although he has studied text-book grammar for years. He has declined nouns and pronouns, conjugated verbs, compared adjectives and adverbs, imprisoned sentences in diagrams, but still he cannot correctly describe an event nor state a fact in clean, concise English. No amount of memory cramming, no amount of formal blank-filling, no amount of mere recitation of grammatical definitions and rules will materially aid pupils in giving clear expression to their own thoughts. Pupils learn to write only in one way—by writing. Parsing and analysis may serve them indirectly; the former, by way of fixing what little there is of inflection and form, the latter, by way of exhibiting the structure of sentences.

A few quotations from distinguished educators may serve to lead young teachers to see the value of constructive work in teaching English.

True ease in writing comes from art, not chance,
As those move easiest who have learned to dance.

— *Pope.*

Write, write, write, there is no way to learn to write, except by writing. — *Emerson*.

A parrot-like knowledge of inflection and rules has ceased to be the goal of linguists in scholarship, and so far as any useful end is concerned, the mere ability to parse and analyze an intricate sentence counts but little. — *Prof. Huffcut, Cornell University*.

It is constant use and practice that makes good speakers and writers; no one ever changed from a bad speaker to a good one by applying the rules of grammar to what was said; in order to use English correctly, it is not necessary to study English grammar, but the study of grammar is useful to us because it helps and hastens the process of learning good English.

— *Prof. W. D. Whitney, Yale College*.

Style is the expression of an author's individuality.

"To each his own method, style, wit, eloquence." — *Emerson*.

All compositions should possess the qualities of clearness, force, and unity.

Clearness of expression consists in so presenting subjects that the writer's meaning is nowhere in doubt.

Force is that quality of style that fixes the reader's attention and carries with it conviction.

Unity in whole compositions consists not only in having each sentence and each paragraph a unit, but finally so to arrange the paragraphs that each will show its relation to the whole and perform some essential part in attaining the end of the complete composition.

"Composition means, literally and simply, putting several things together so as to make *one* thing out of them; the nature and goodness of which they all have a share in producing. It is the essence of composition that every thing should be in a determined place, perform an intended part, and act, in that part, advantageously for everything that is connected with it."

— *John Ruskin*.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMPOSITION-WRITING.

Choose a subject in which you are interested.

Narrow your subject as much as possible.

Fully inform yourself about your subject.

Make notes of thoughts as they come to you.

Always make an outline to guide you

Think each sentence through before writing it.

Punctuate carefully as you write.

Use words in their proper sense.

Use the least number of words that will clearly express your thought.

Avoid high-sounding terms, slang, and all inelegant expressions.

Correct and re-write often. Revision is the only cure for verbosity. Revision is of the utmost importance, especially if one writes rapidly. "Genius is but another name for the ability to labor."

EXERCISE.

1. Write a paragraph on "My First Valentine." Tell when you received it, what was on it, and who sent it.

2. Write a paragraph in which you try to reproduce a conversation which you have heard, and which amused you. Paragraph and quote what each speaker says.

3. Write a paragraph on "Getting Ready to Move." Try to present a picture of the disordered condition of the house, and then the moving wagons with their varied freight.

4. Write a short composition on "One Day in School." Pick out a definite day and tell what happened. Give only the events which do not ordinarily occur.

5. Write a personal description of yourself, or of some one whom the teacher may select.

6. Write a paragraph on "My Ideal Woman," giving the specific characteristics of some woman whom you know and whom you consider an ideal.

7. Write a description of the house in which you live, selecting details with reference to size, shape, location, and surroundings which would make it seem a pleasant place to live.

8. Write a brief description of a storm, ending with the appearance of things when the storm was over. Try to reproduce the effect that the storm made on you.

9. Write a paragraph on "The Book I Like Best," and tell specifically why you like it.

10. Take any one of the characters presented in the book mentioned in (9) and, from the impressions you got in reading the book, describe his appearance as he seems to you.

11. Write a newspaper account, real or imaginary, of a wedding which you have attended. Tell something about the ceremony and about the people who were married. Tell the things that those who were not present might want to know.

12. Write a description of any domestic animal at your home, and do not tell what it is until the end.

13. Write a paragraph on "Why Farmers Should be Educated Men." Give clear, specific reasons.

14. Write an account of an accident which you have either seen or imagined. Try to keep the reader in suspense and then surprise him in the end.

15. Write a composition of five paragraphs on "Commencement Day" in your high school. Where the exercises were held, audience, parents of the graduates, opening exercises, address of the superintendent of schools, delivery of diplomas by the president of the board, closing exercises.

16. Write a paragraph on the "Evils of Monthly Examinations." State definitely your own personal opinions.

17. Write a composition on "Twenty Years Ago," and show what changes have been wrought by inventions of which you personally know or can learn.

The requisites of a good description are clearness, accuracy, vividness. Nothing can be well described that is not clearly seen by the writer. To be able to describe well, one must learn to observe closely and to choose fitting and forcible words.

George Washington. When Washington was elected general of the army he was forty-three years of age. In stature he a little exceeded six feet; his limbs were sinewy and well proportioned; his chest broad, his figure stately, blending dignity of presence with ease of manner. His robust constitution had been tried and invigorated by his early life in the wilderness, his habit of occupation out of doors, and his rigid temperance; so that few equalled him in strength of arm or power of endurance. His complexion was florid, his hair dark brown, his head in its shape perfectly round. His broad nostrils seemed formed to give expression and escape to scornful anger. His dark blue eyes, which were deeply set, had an expression of resignation and an earnestness that was almost sad. — *George Bancroft.*

Study the foregoing model and write a description of the superintendent of your schools, of your teacher, of the mayor of your city, of the pastor of the church to which you belong or attend.

18. **A March Day.** Present a picture of a windy day in March by its effects on persons and objects rather than by direct statements concerning the attributes of the day.

19. **The Public Park.** Name, location, drives, walks, trees, flowers, decorations of various kinds, summer houses, statues. Value of parks to cities.

20. **A Walk in the Woods.** Note difference made by seasons in the trees, flowers, etc., tell what you saw there, birds, animals, flowers, comparative coolness and quiet. Explain uses and value of the woods. Read *The Succession of Forest Trees, Sounds, and Wild Apples*, by Henry D. Thoreau.

21. **A Picnic.** Where, when held, by whom, describe the picnic-grounds, and tell about the amusements, a boating accident, sudden rain, luncheon, labor of getting it, the return trip.

22. **A Hunt for Wild Flowers.** Tell where you went, with whom, the kind of flowers you were seeking, where you found them, give time of year, describe some uncommon one you saw, give some interesting story connected with flowers. Read the *The Procession of the Flowers*, by Thomas Wentworth Higginson.

23. **Life of a Doctor.** A hard life, never a moment of his own, day and night, out in all kinds of weather. Often called unnecessarily. Often blamed unjustly, too much expected of him. Not all unpleasant, great opportunity for doing good. Position in society.

24. **A Fishing Excursion.** To what place, describe the journey thither, procuring bait, what kind of fishing-tackle used, what you caught, kind, size of fish, return, success or failure.

In writing a biographical sketch, state: (1) where and when the person was born; (2) tell about his parents; (3) early opportunities for an education; (4) great things done; (5) how man has acknowledged him.

Write a biographical sketch of Washington, Franklin, Lincoln, Longfellow, Lowell, Holmes, Harriet Beecher Stowe, Miss Frances Willard.

LESSON VIII.

FAULTY DICTION.

You might read all the books in the British Museum (if you could live long enough), and still remain an utterly "illiterate," uneducated person; but if you read ten pages of a good book, letter by letter, — that is to say, with real accuracy, — you are forevermore in some measure an educated person. . . . A well-educated gentleman may not know many languages, — may not be able to speak any but his own, — may have read very few books. But whatever language he knows he knows precisely.

— *John Ruskin.*

The right use of words is not a matter to be left to pedants and pedagogues. It belongs to the daily life of every man. The misuse of words confuses ideas, and impairs the value of language as a means of communication. Hence loss of time, of money, and sore trial of patience. It is significant that we call a quarrel a misunderstanding. — *Richard Grant White.*

"I went to the club last night," writes Oliver Wendell Holmes in one of those delightful letters of his to John Lothrop Motley, "and met some of the friends you always like to hear of. I sat by the side of Emerson, who always charms me with his delicious voice, his fine sense and wit, and the delicate way he steps about among the words of his vocabulary, — if you have seen a cat picking her footsteps in wet weather, you have seen the picture of Emerson's exquisite intelligence, feeling for its phrase or epithet. Sometimes I think of an ant-eater singling out his insects, as I see him looking about and at last seizing his noun or adjective, — the best, the only one that would serve the need of his thought." — *Life and Letters of Oliver Wendell Holmes.*

In the choice of words, we have to consider the selection of such words as express, with accuracy, what is meant, their adaptability to the writer's purpose, and their appropriateness to the matter in hand.

The English language abounds in synonyms, or words of similar, but not quite identical, meaning. These words must be carefully distinguished, for on the understanding of these differences is based all mastery of English composition and thorough enjoyment of the masterpieces of English literature.

This lesson is not a treatise on the choice of words. School text-books should not attempt to treat a subject exhaustively. Pupils are not educated in school, nor students in college. All that a school or a college can do for a pupil or a student is to train him in proper habits of study, to lay the foundation upon which he can build throughout life.

The following brief discussion of the right and the wrong use of words is given in the hope that it will call the attention of the pupil to the importance of choosing the right word and stimulate him to a further study of this subject.

The following books of reference should be found on every teacher's desk:

THE VERBALIST. *Alfred Ayres.*

WORDS AND THEIR USES. *Richard Grant White.*

WORDS, THEIR USE AND ABUSE. *William Mathews.*

SYNONYMS, ANTONYMS, AND PREPOSITIONS. *James E. Fernald.*

The last named book is especially adapted to the needs of pupils in the seventh and eighth grades.

TO THE TEACHER. The examples of faulty diction here given, though few, are sufficient to illustrate the classes of faulty usage the pupil should guard against.

Require the pupil to use the words briefly discussed in this lesson in original sentences. Require him to bring to the class other words that are often misused and show why one should be chosen in preference to the other. This subject can be indefinitely enlarged by the teacher.

And. *And* is often misused for *to*; as, "Come *and* see me." "Try *and* do what you can for him." "Go *and* see your brother, if you can." In such sentences use *to*, not *and*.

All over. "The disease spread *all over* the country." Say "The disease spread *over all* the country."

Adjective — Adverb. If a phrase denoting *manner* could be substituted, the adverb should be used; but if some part of the verb *to be* could be employed as a connective, the adjective is required; as, "The physician felt his pulse *carefully* [that is, in a careful manner] and observed that the patient's hand felt *cold* [that is, was cold to the touch]." It is correct to say "He feels *sad*." "It looks *bad*." "It smells *sweet*."

Apprehend — Comprehend. *Apprehend* is often misused for *comprehend*. Perception *apprehends*; conception *comprehends*. Both express an effort of the thinking faculty. To *apprehend* is simply to take an idea into the mind; to *comprehend* an idea is fully to understand it in its various relations to what is already in the mind.

Apt — Liable — Likely. *Apt* implies natural fitness or tendency; as, "He is an *apt* scholar." "An impetuous person is *apt* to speak sharply." *Likely* is used of a contingent event that is probable, and, usually, favorable; as, "An industrious student is *likely* to succeed." *Liable* refers to an unfavorable contingency; as, "The ship is *liable* to sink at any time."

Angry — Mad. *Angry* means roused by indignation or resentment; *mad* usually means disordered in mind, lunatic, insane. It is well to preserve the distinction between these words, though some of our best writers use *mad* in the sense of *angry*.

Authentic—Genuine. *Genuine* means true or real as opposed to what is spurious or supposititious; *authentic*, that which possesses authority or is trustworthy. A book whose statements on any subjects are in accordance with facts is *authentic*; a book is *genuine* if written by the author to whom it is attributed, but may be absolutely unreliable.

Above. Frequently used as an adjective, as in "the *above* statement," "the *above* incidents did not occur as was stated in the dispatch." If the statement is something that is previously mentioned in the text it is better to say "the *foregoing*" or "the *preceding* statement." If reference is made to incidents or facts outside the text that have been mentioned previously to what is now being said, "the *above-mentioned* facts," "the incidents related *above*" may be used.

Alone—Solitary. *Alone* means unaccompanied, single. A traveller without companions is *alone*. *Solitary* refers more to one's mental or social isolation from surrounding affairs or people. "*Solitude* is not measured by the miles of space that intervene between a man and his fellows. The really diligent student in one of the crowded hives of Cambridge College is as *solitary* as a dervish in the desert."—*Henry D. Thoreau*.

Avocation—Vocation. *Vocation* means one's regular calling or business, as banking, printing; *avocation* is that which furnishes amusement or pleasure aside from regular business, as music, hunting. A man's *vocation* may be printing, and his *avocation* amateur photography. "The work has been prepared chiefly in the leisure taken from active duties, and from time to time has been delayed by other *avocations*."

Allude—Mention—Refer. *Allude* is very frequently misused for *mention*, *refer*. We *allude* to events or to things when we do not distinctly *mention* or directly *refer* to them. *Allusion* implies a knowledge of the subject on the part of the reader or the hearer. "He was not familiar with the *allusions* of English literature, and had often to consult the dictionary." "The lecturer did not *refer* to the incidents of the Crimean War."

Aggravate — Provoke. *Aggravate* signifies to make heavy, to make worse, as “*aggravating* circumstances” in criminal law phrase means circumstances that increase the gravity of a crime. *Provoke* means to act in a way to excite anger or resentment.

Among one another. “They exchanged confidences among one another.” Say “*among themselves*,” or “*with one another*.”

At — In. Use *at* if the place is regarded as a point; *in*, if it is inclusive; as, “We arrived *at* Paris.” “He lives *in* London.” Say “Where is it,” not “Where is it *at*” — the *at* is redundant.

And — Or. *And* is often used where *or* is required; as, “A language like the French *and* German contains as many words.” “A language like the French *or* the German,” since no language is at once French *and* German.

Approach — Address — Petition. Do not use *approach* for *address* or *petition*. *Approach* is often used in a bad sense, implying the use of bribery or intrigue. “The teachers *petitioned* the superintendent for longer intermissions,” not *approached* or *addressed* him.

Ain’t. A modification of *am not*, or *are not*. Always inelegant — a vulgarism.

Awful — Awfully. Colloquial slang, for *very* or *exceedingly*; as, “An *awfully* jolly crowd;” “an *awful* good time;” “*awfully* nice.”

Answer — Reply. Discriminate in the use of these two words. We *answer* a question, and *reply* to an assertion. We *answer* letters and *reply* to arguments they may contain.

Back out. An Americanism for *retreat*. Say *retreat*.

Been to. “Where have you *been to*?” Omit the superfluous *to*.

Both. This word is redundant in the following sentences: “They *both* resemble each other very much.” They are *both* alike.” “They *both* met in the street.” Its use in the foregoing sentences is absurd.

Big — Great. *Big* is often misused for *great*; as, “He is a *big* man, instead of a *great* man.” A *big* man may be very far from being a *great* man.

Elegant—Splendid. These words are very frequently used when the speaker means to say *fine*, as in such expressions as “an elegant day,” “a splendid piece of roast beef.” *Splendid* is from a Latin adjective, *splendidus*, meaning bright, shining, brilliant. A jeweler’s tray of diamonds may be *splendid*; the sun is *splendid*. *Elegant* means marked by refinement, exhibiting taste and delicacy of finish; as, “He had not expected to find so much taste for *elegant* literature in an old village deacon.”

Education. “This is one of the most misused of words. A man may be well acquainted with the contents of text-books, and yet be a person of little *education*; on the other hand, a man may be a person of good education, and yet know little of the contents of text-books. Abraham Lincoln and Edwin Forrest knew comparatively little of what is generally learned in schools; still they were men of culture, men of education. A man may have ever so much book-knowledge and still be a boor; but a man cannot be a person of good education and not be—so far as manner is concerned—a gentleman. *Education*, then, is the whole of which Instruction and Breeding are the parts. The man or the woman—even in this democratic country of ours—who *deserves* the title of gentleman or lady is always a person of education; *i. e.*, he or she has a sufficient acquaintance with books and with the usages of social intercourse to acquit himself or herself creditably in the society of cultivated people. Not moral worth, nor learning, nor wealth, nor all three combined, can unaided make a gentleman, for with all three a man might be *uneducated*—coarse, unbred, unschooled in those things which alone make men welcome in the society of the refined.”

—*Alfred Ayres.*

Except. This word is often used when *unless* should be used; as, “No one need apply *except* he is thoroughly familiar with the business.” No one need apply *unless*, etc.

Either. This word means the *one* or the *other* of two. “Give me *either* of them”—that is, give me the one or the other of two. We should not say “Give me *either*” in referring to more than two.

From — Of. *From* is often misused for *of*; as, "He died *from* cholera." Say he died *of* cholera. We may say he died *from* the effects of cholera.

Fetch — Carry — Bring. *Fetch* means to *go and bring*, hence it is clearly wrong to use such expressions as "go and fetch me a drink of water." *Carry* often implies the meaning *from*, and is followed by the prepositions *away* and *from*, thus being opposed to *fetch* and *bring*.

Friend — Acquaintance. "A *friend* is one with whom you may be sincere;" an *acquaintance* may be one about whom you know little. One may have few *friends*, but many *acquaintances*; hence, he who is desirous to call things by their right names will, as a rule, use the word *acquaintance* instead of *friend*.

Got. Do not say "I have got" when you mean merely that you have possession of something. *Got* means to obtain when one strives for anything; as, "He *got* the book offered as a prize through his earnest efforts."

Good — Great. *Good* is often improperly used for *great*. *Good* means having admirable moral or spiritual qualities; righteous, virtuous, religious; *great* means unusually large mass or magnitude; big; vast; containing many units. The use of *good* instead of *great* is clearly improper in the following sentences: "I have a *good* many sheep." "A *good* number were present." "She has a *good* number of bad boys."

Hurry — Haste. *Haste* denotes rapidity of motion, merely. *Hurry* implies confusion as well as rapidity. A person may *hasten* a work without affecting its accuracy or elegance; but to *hurry* carries with it an idea of confusion, laxity of execution, and resulting inelegance.

How. Should never be used to ask for the repetition of a word or a sentence.

Had have. A vulgarism of the worst description. These two auxiliary verbs should never be used together. "Had I *have* known it," "Had you *have* seen it," instead of "*Had* I known it." "*Had* you seen it."

Hain't. A common and inexcusable vulgarism.

Had — Ought. "He *had* ought to go." Omit the *had*. *Ought* says all that *had ought* says.

Healthy — Wholesome. *Healthy* means having health; *wholesome* means tending to promote health. Say "Onions are *wholesome* vegetables," not *healthy* vegetables. A man may be *healthy*; the food he eats, if not deleterious, is *wholesome*.

How — That. "I have heard *how* in Italy one is beset on all sides by beggars;" read heard *that*. *How* means the *manner in which*. *How* should never be used instead of the substantive-conjunction *that*.

In — Into. Often misused. *In* denotes position, state; *into*, tendency, direction; as, "I threw the stone *into* the water, and it lies *in* the water." "Come *into* [not *in*] the house." Where no object is expressed, we may use *in*; as, "Come *in*." "Go *in*."

If. "I doubt *if* this will ever reach you." Say *whether* this will ever reach you.

Ill — Sick. Both words refer to disordered physical condition. *Sick*, however, is the stronger word, and generally the better word to use.

In so far as. "A want of opportunity would suffice, *in* so far as the want could be shown." The *in* is not needed.

Like — As. Do not say "He thinks *like* I do," but *as* I do.

Lend — Loan. *Lend* is a verb; *loan* a noun. "He endeavored to secure a *loan*." "They are said to *lend* money."

Less — Fewer. The following sentence, from a prominent school journal, contains a very common, but inexcusable blunder: "There were not less than three hundred and fifty teachers in attendance." This should be "not fewer." *Less* is used in speaking of *quantity*; as, "There was *less* wheat in the second than in the first bin." *Fewer* is used of *number*; as, "Not *fewer* than sixty thousand people visited the city during the celebration of our great victories.

Love — Like. *Love* should never be used for *like*. Both words express a fondness for and a pleasure in something, but *love* expresses something more — a spirit of devotion to, a readiness to sacrifice to obtain, or to serve, what we love.

“He *loves* his country, his mother, and his wife.” “He *likes* peaches and pumpkin pie.”

Lay — Lie. *Lay* is a transitive verb; *lie*, intransitive. *Lay* means “to put down;” *lie* means to rest. *Lie*, being intransitive, never has an object. The presence or absence of an object, and the character of the verb as transitive or intransitive may be decided by asking the question, “*Lay* (or laid) *what?*” “We say a man *lays* brick.” “A ship *lies* at anchor.” “I must *lie* down.” “I must *lay* myself down.” In short, *lay* always expresses transitive action and *lie*, rest.

Learn — Teach. To *learn* is take instruction; to *teach* is give instruction. “The ladies at the college *learned* many poor girls to make their own clothing.” Read *taught* the girls, the girls *learned*. The uncultured often misuse *learn* for *teach*.

Looks beautifully. The adjective *beautiful* should be used. “Looks beautifully” is genteel bad grammar. We can say she looks *sweet*, or *beautiful*, or *charming*. That is, to the observer her appearance is *sweet* or *beautiful* or *charming*.

Mutual. *Mutual* is properly used in the sense of *reciprocal*; hence it is an error to speak of a “mutual friend.” Say common friend. Two authors may have a *mutual*, that is to say reciprocal, admiration for each other, but a society of literary men would have a common admiration for one another.

Merely — Simply. *Merely* implies no addition; *simply*, no complication; as, “The boys were there *merely* as spectators; it is *simply* incredible that they should have disgraced themselves so.”

Mere. This word is frequently misused; “It is true of men as of God, that words *merely* meet with no response.” The writer meant that *mere* words met with no response.

Make up their mind. Some people never *decide*, or *conclude*, or *determine* to do anything: “they *make up their mind*.”

Neglect — Negligence. *Neglect* refers to an act or a succession of acts; *negligence* refers to the act or habit of neglecting that which ought to be done.

Nice. This has been aptly termed the social adjective. It is used by some to express every qualification imaginable, as a *nice* day, a *nice* time, a *nice* man. The proper meaning is *delicate*, *exact*; as, a *nice* distinction in words.

Nicely. "How do you do?" "*Nicely.*" "How are you?" "*Nicely.*" This use is the quintessence of popinjay vulgarity.

No use. "It was *no use* to argue with him." Say *of no use*.

Neither — Nor. *Neither* is often misused by writers of ability; as, "He would *neither* give wine *nor* oil, *nor* money." The conjunction should be placed before the excluded objects; as, "He would give *neither* wine, *nor* oil, *nor* money." "She can *neither* help her beauty, *nor* her courage, *nor* her cruelty." Say she can help *neither*, etc.

Not. Care should be used in placing *not*. The correlative of *not* when it stands in the first member of a sentence is *nor* or *neither*; as, "*Not* for thy ivory *nor* thy gold will I unbind thy chain," — not, *or* thy gold. "I will *not* do it, *neither* shall you," — not, *or* shall you.

Off of. One of these words is superfluous. "Give me a yard *off of* this piece of cloth." Say give me a yard *off* this piece of cloth, or *of* this piece of cloth. "The peach fell *off of* the tree;" read fell *off* the tree.

Often. Often, oftener, oftenest, the proper comparison. The regular comparison is certainly more euphonious than *more* often and *most* often.

On to. Omit the *to*. We get *on* a chair, *on* a stump, and not on *to* a chair, a stump, etc.

Ought — Should. Each of these words implies obligation. *Ought* is the stronger term. What we *ought* to do we are morally bound to do. We *ought* to love our neighbors as we love ourselves, and *should* be respectful to every one.

Other. This word is often omitted when its use would make clearer the meaning intended. *Other* means different from the one specified, not the same. "No man can do as well." This expression includes the person to whom reference is made. "No other man can do as well," is evidently meant.

Only. The qualifying word *only* has its place strictly assigned by the laws of expression, and this place is easily found on analyzing the sentence in which the word occurs; yet notwithstanding this simple test of its proper place no other word in the English language is more frequently misplaced. According to the position of *only*, the same words may be made to express very different meanings; as, "The drama, upon which the curtain had *only* fallen a short time since, was 'Money.'" Here *only* is misplaced, for the author meant to say had fallen *only* a short time. Placed before fallen it modifies that word contrary to the writer's intention. "In its pages, papers of sterling merit *only* will appear;" read *only* papers of sterling merit. "Things are getting dull down in Texas; they *only* shot three men down there last week;" read they shot *only* three men, etc. "I *only* have three tickets;" read *only* three tickets. Place *only* immediately before the word or words you mean to qualify. The beauty and strength and clearness of a sentence depend quite as much on a proper arrangement of the grammatical terms as on the choice of words used to express the thought. Grammars, rhetorics, examples of faulty diction, and suggestions from the ablest critics can only assist the pupil in his struggle to dislodge the incorrect and verbose habits of expression acquired in the home and firmly established by long usage. "Of all the faults to be found in writing, misplaced words," says Cobbett, "is the most common, and perhaps it leads to the greatest number of mistakes. All the words may be the proper words to be used upon the occasion, and yet, by a *misplacing* of a part of them, the meaning may be wholly destroyed; and even made to be the contrary of what it ought to be." Thinking, vigorous, courageous thinking and revision are the only reliable remedies for the cure of verbosity and the use of incorrect expressions.

Only too willing. This phrase is supplanting the simple word *willing*. "I should like well," or "It would please me," is preferable.

Proven. This is an incorrect form—a Scotticism—for *proved*, the perfect participle of *prove*. Say "The proposition was *proved* by John," not "was *proven*."

Propose—Purpose. *Propose* means to offer for consideration, as plans, and so forth. *Purpose* means to intend, to design; as, "I *purpose* to write a history of England from the accession of King James the Second down to a time within the memory of living men."—*Macaulay*.

Plead. This is an erroneous form for *pleaded*. "He *pleaded* to be allowed to go," not "he *plead*."

Per. This is a Latin preposition and should always be followed by the Latin word; as *per diem*, *per annum*, not *per day* or *per year*. If you use the English word, say *a day*, *a year*.

Portion—Part. These words are not interchangeable. "A large *portion* of the building was destroyed by fire" is incorrect, because a *portion* means a part set aside for some special purpose, or for consideration by itself.

Party—Person. *Party* is often misused. *Party* means any one of two or more bodies of people contending for antagonistic opinions or politics; a number of persons assembled for social entertainment. *Person* means a human being, an individual.

Procure—Secure. *Procure* means to come into possession or enjoyment of by some effort or means. *Secure* means to make secure against risk or loss; to fasten, or confine as against escape or loss. We *procure* meal tickets at some hotels, but *secure* ourselves against loss by fire by insurance.

Proof—Evidence. *Proof* means the establishment of a fact by evidence; *evidence* makes clear or plain. The word *proof* is often misused for *evidence*; as, "What *proof* have you to offer in the case?" "What *evidence* have you to offer in *proof* of the truth of your statements?" *Proof* is the effect of *evidence*.

Procure—Get. *Procure* is often misused for *get* by persons who strive to be fine; as, “Where did you *procure* it?” Better, “Where did you *get* it?”

Promise—Assure. *Promise* is sometimes misused for *assure*; as, “I *promise* you I was very much astonished;” read, I *assure* you, etc. *Promise* means to engage to do or not to do; *assure* means to give confidence to, to convince.

Partly—Partially. *Partly*, meaning in part, is preferable to *partially*, since the latter also means with partiality.

Present—Introduce. By those who are always striving to “show off” the word *present* is frequently used for *introduce*. *Present* means to face in the presence of an emperor; *introduce* means to bring to be acquainted. A person is *presented* at court or to our President; but persons who are unknown to each other are *introduced*.

Quantity—Number. *Quantity* is often improperly used for *number*. *Quantity* means so much; *number*, a collection of units. We use *quantity* in speaking of what is measured or weighed; *number*, of what is counted.

Quite. This word is correctly used only in the sense of entire, complete, finished. A school may have *quite* a thousand pupils, that is, a complete or full thousand, and still be not *quite*, or entirely, full. Such expressions as “we had *quite* a nice time,” “she is *quite* an important person,” are gross vulgarisms.

Rarely or ever. Say *rarely if ever*.

Raise—Increase. *Raise* is frequently used for *increase*; as, “A landlord notified his tenant that he would *raise* his rent.” The tenant’s reply was, “I thank you, I find it very hard to *raise* it myself.” The landlord should have said, “I will *increase* your rent.”

Such—So. “I never before saw *such* a large steeple.” By transposing the words the sentence reads, “I never before saw a steeple *such* large.” The proper word to use is *so*. “I never saw *so* large a steeple.”

Sure. “I’m going *sure*.” Say, “I’m *surely* going.”

Since—Ago. *Since* refers to recent time; *ago* to past time in general; as, "I brought you word an hour *since*." "The Spanish Armada was destroyed off the coast of England long *ago*."

Stay—Stop. We go to a hotel and *stay*, not *stop*, there. *Stop* refers merely to the cessation of motion; *stay* means to sojourn, to continue in one place.

Set—Sit. In strict usage, *sit* is always intransitive when referring to posture; *set*, transitive; the expressions "a *setting* hen," for a "*sitting* hen," and "the coat *sets* well," or ill, as the case may be, for "the coat *fits*," are colloquialisms common to the United States, where it is by many thought pedantic to use *sit* in these senses. Garments *sit*, hens *sit*, and the wind *sits*, not *sets*, in a certain quarter, *e. g.*, "And look how well my garments *sit* upon me, much feater [more neatly] than before." — *Shakespeare*. "Now *sits* the wind fair, and we will aboard." — *Ibid.* In Matthew, xxi. 4-7, we learn it was prophesied that Jesus should come "*sitting* upon an ass," so the disciples fetched a colt from the "village over against them," and "they *set* him thereon." Also see Jeremiah, xvii. 11: "As the partridge *sitteth* on eggs and hatcheth them not."

Shall—Will. *Shall*, in an affirmative sentence in the first person, and *will*, in the second and third persons, merely announce future action. "I *shall* go to town to-morrow." "I *shall* not; I *shall* wait for better weather." "We *shall* be glad to see you." "We *shall* set out early, and *shall* try to arrive by noon."

Shall, in an affirmative sentence in the second and third persons, announces the speaker's intention to control. Thus, "You *shall* hear me out." "You *shall* go, sick or well." "He *shall* be my heir."

Will, in the first person, expresses a promise, announces the speaker's intention to control, proclaims a determination. Thus, "I *will* [I promise to] assist you." "I *will* [I am determined to] have my right." "We *will* [we promise to] come to you in the morning."—*The Verbalist*.

Storm is misused by those who say it is storming when they mean merely that it is raining. A *storm* is, properly, a severe disturbance of the atmosphere, and is frequently, but not necessarily, accompanied with hail, snow, rain, or thunder and lightning. Rain may descend as quietly as the gentle rain from heaven, to which Shakespeare compared the quality of mercy, or it may be accompanied with a cyclonic *storm*.

Scarcely—Hardly. *Scarcely* pertains to quantity; *hardly* to degree; as, "There is *scarcely* a bushel of wheat." "I shall *hardly* finish my job by nightfall."

Seldom or ever is incorrect; better, *seldom if ever*, or *seldom or never*.

Superfluous Words. A careful study of the following paragraph taken from THE VERBALIST will prove helpful to pupils: "Whenever I try to write well, I *always* find I can do it." "I shall have finished by the *latter* end of this week." "Iron sinks *down* in water." "He combined *together* all the facts." "My brother called on me, and we *both* took a walk." "I can do it *equally* as well as he." "We could not forbear *from* doing it." "Before I go, I must *first* be paid." "We were compelled to return *back*." "We forced them to retreat *back* fully a mile." "His conduct was approved *of* by everybody." "They conversed *together* for a long time." "The balloon rose *up* very rapidly." "Give me another *one*." "Come home as soon as *ever* you can." "Who finds him *in* money?" "He came in last *of all*." "He has *got* all he can carry." "What have you *got*?" "No matter; I have *got*." "I have *got* the headache." "Have you *got* any brothers?" "No; but I have *got* a sister." All the words in *italics* are superfluous.

Think—Believe. *Think* is often improperly used for *believe*. To *think* means to form by mental processes, to review in mind; to *believe* means to accept as true on testimony or authority. "I *think* well of your proposition." "I *believe* that George Washington was a great and good man," that is, I accept as true the history of his life.

Take on. This group of words is often misused for *grieve* or *scold*.

Take up school. This phrase is often misused for *begin school*. "School *took up* at 9 o'clock." Say *school began*, etc.

They, their, them. Each of these words is often misused in such expressions as "If any one has lost a book, *they* may inquire for it." "Every one must get *their* own lesson." Say *his* or *her* lesson. "*Them* examples are not difficult." Say *these* or *those* examples.

This, that or these, those. In the sense of *former* and *latter*, *this* and *these* should refer to the latter of the two things mentioned; *that*, *those* to the former.

That of. "He chose for a profession *that of* the law." Why not say, "He chose law for a profession."

Try—Make. *Try* is often misused for *make*; as, "Try the experiment" for "Make the experiment."

Tantalize means to tease by repeated disappointments. *Aggravate* should never be used for *irritate*, *provoke*, or *tantalize*.

Taste of. The *of* is superfluous. We *taste* or *smell* a thing, not *taste of* nor *smell of*.

Transpire—Happen. *Transpire* is frequently misused for *happen*. *Transpire* means, literally, to ooze out; as, "Transpiration is a slow flow under resistance." *Happen* means to come, occur or exist by chance. "What *happened* at the meeting of the commissioners has not yet *transpired*"—that is, what occurred at the meeting has not yet become known.

Upon—On. The prevailing tendency is toward the use of the simpler *on*, unless the idea to be expressed is that of actual superposition; as, "The mason places one stone *upon* another." We call *on* a friend, make speeches *on* subjects, write *on* various questions, and, if we are not careful in our choice of prepositions, find that "one woe doth tread *upon* another's heels, so fast they follow."—*Shakespeare*.

Whole of. An expression that should not be used instead of *whole*, *entire*, before a plural noun. "The *whole of* the congregation were greatly affected" should be "the *whole* [better, *entire*] congregation," etc. Again, "The *whole of* the committee have left" should be "*all* the committee," unless it is desired to make reference only to such of the members as are *whole* in body, or not wanting in the full number of limbs.

With — By. *With* denotes the instrument; *by* the agent; as, "The ditch was dug *by* the gardener *with* a spade."

What — That. *What* is often improperly used for *that*; as, "He would not believe but *what* I did it;" read, but *that*. "I do not doubt but *what* I shall go to St. Louis to-morrow;" read, doubt *that*.

"An accurate knowledge and a correct and felicitous use of words are, of themselves, almost sure proofs of good breeding. No doubt it marks a weak mind to care more for the casket than for the jewel it contains—to prefer elegantly turned sentences to sound sense; but sound sense always acquires additional value when expressed in pure English. Moreover, he who carefully studies accuracy of expression, the proper choice and arrangement of words in any language, will be also advancing toward accuracy of thought as well as toward propriety and energy of speech, "for divers philosophers hold," says Shakespeare, "that the lip is parcel of the mind." Few things are more ludicrous than the blunders by which even persons moving in refined society often betray the grossest ignorance of very common words."—*William Mathews*.

Once it was believed that the cultivation of language and the study of grammar should begin together. Fortunately that belief is no longer held by many teachers. The child should be trained to speak correctly from the day that he utters his first complete sentence. During the whole period of life there is no time when one's language may not be cultivated and improved. There is a time, however, when the study of grammar has little or no value. The rules of grammar are hindrances until the pupil can comprehend their application.

It is unfortunate, for both pupil and teacher, that the child is not trained in the home to use correct language. A large majority of pupils enter school habituated to incorrect forms of speech. The child learns the forms of language used by his associates. If his associates use correct forms of speech, he will unconsciously acquire the habit of using language correctly. On the other hand, if his associates use language incorrectly, he will unconsciously use the same forms of expression. Throughout life, example is the great teacher. One good example is worth more than one hundred moral precepts. Truly has Lowell written: "An illustration is worth more than any amount of discourse."

A pupil cannot acquire the art of expression by merely reciting the laws that govern the expression of thought. The study of English grammar, at any age, is only a help to the mastery of good English. Thinking is the only remedy for slovenly language; revision, the only cure for verbosity. The ability to speak and write English with accuracy and effectiveness is the only true measure of a practical knowledge of English grammar. Teachers should remember that any method of teaching English that does not enable a pupil to express his ideas clearly and forcibly is a failure. In language study, thinking is more important than memorizing. Right thinking and right feeling are safer guides to correct expression than the rules of grammar and rhetoric. "Inaccurate writing is generally the expression of inaccurate thinking." Clear expression is born of clear thinking. Definite convictions usually clothe themselves in brief, clear language. Expression is the soul of education. Every growing soul struggles to express itself, to give vent to pent up thought and emotion. Child and adult alike need expressional vent. Expression awakens, develops, realizes.

LESSON IX.

SELECTIONS FOR STUDY AND ANALYSIS.

TO THE TEACHER: Require the class to give the proximate analysis of the following selections by stating: (1) the kind of sentence; (2) the complete subject; (3) the complete predicate; (4) the meaning of the sentence in the pupil's own language.

THE MEMORY OF GEORGE WASHINGTON.

A hundred years hence other disciples of Washington will celebrate his birth with no less of sincere admiration than we now commemorate it. When they shall meet as we now meet, to do themselves and him that honor, so surely as they shall see the blue summits of his native mountains rise in the horizon, so surely as they shall behold the river on whose banks he lived, and on whose banks he rests, still flowing on toward the sea, so surely may they see as we now see, the flag of the Union floating on the top of the capitol; and then, as now, may the sun in his course visit no land more free, more happy, more lovely than this, our own country. — *Webster.*

SELF-RELIANCE.

Trust thyself: every heart vibrates to that iron string. Accept the place the divine providence has found for you, the society of your contemporaries, the connection of events. Great men have always done so, and confided

themselves childlike to the genius of their age, betraying their perception that the absolutely trustworthy was seated at their heart, working through their hands, predominating in all their being. And we are now men, and must accept in the highest mind the same transcendent destiny; and not minors and invalids in a protected corner, not cowards fleeing before a revolution, but guides, redeemers, and benefactors, obeying the Almighty effort, and advancing on Chaos and the Dark.

— *Emerson.*

NOTE TO TEACHER: To test the pupil's ability to interpret abstract thought, require him to paraphrase the foregoing extract from Emerson's wonderful essay on Self-Reliance.

LESSON X.

VICTORY IN DEFEAT.

One of the first lessons of life is to learn how to get victory out of defeat. It takes courage and stamina, when mortified and embarrassed by humiliating disaster, to seek in the wreck or ruins the elements of future conquest. Yet this measures the difference between those who succeed and those who fail. You cannot measure a man by his failures. You must know what use he makes of them. What did they mean to him? What did he get out of them?

I always watch with great interest a young man's first failure. It is the index of his life, the measure of his success — power. The mere fact of his failure does not interest me much; but how did he take his defeat? What did he do next? Was he discouraged? Did he

slink out of sight? Did he conclude that he had made a mistake in his calling, and dabble in something else? Or did he up and at it again with a determination that knows no defeat?

There is something grand and inspiring in a young man who fails squarely after doing his level best, and then enters the contest again and again with undaunted courage and redoubled energy. I have no fears for the youth who is not disheartened at failure.

“It is defeat,” says Henry Ward Beecher, “that turns bone into flint, and gristle to muscle, and makes men invincible, and formed those heroic natures that are now in ascendancy in the world. Do not, then, be afraid of defeat. You are never so near to victory as when defeated in a good cause.”

Failure becomes the final test of persistence and of an iron will. It either crushes a life, or solidifies it. The wounded oyster mends his shell with pearl.

Uninterrupted successes at the beginning of a career are dangerous. Beware of the first great triumph. It may prove a failure. Many a man has been ruined by over-confidence born of his first victory. The mountain oak, tossed and swayed in the tempest until its proud top sweeps the earth, is all the stronger for its hundred battles with the elements, if it only straightened up again. The danger is not in a fall, but in failing to rise.

—O. S. Marden, in *Pushing to the Front*.

LESSON XI.

BOOKS.

It is chiefly through books that we enjoy intercourse with superior minds, and these invaluable means of communication are in the reach of all. In the best books great men talk to us, give us their most precious thoughts, and pour their souls into ours. God be thanked for books. They are the voices of the distant and the dead, and make us heirs of the spiritual life of past ages. Books are the true levelers. They give to all, who will faithfully use them, the society, the spiritual presence of the best and greatest of our race. No matter how poor I am — no matter though the prosperous of my own time will not enter my obscure dwelling — if the sacred writers will enter and take up their abode under my roof, if Milton will cross my threshold to sing to me of Paradise, and Shakespeare to open to me the worlds of imagination and the workings of the human heart, and Franklin to enrich me with his practical wisdom, I shall not pine for want of intellectual companionship, and I may become a cultivated man; though excluded from what is called the best society in the place where I live. — *Channing*.

GRANDFATHER'S CHAIR.

The chair in which Grandfather sat was made of oak, which had grown dark with age, but had been rubbed

and polished till it shone as bright as mahogany. It was very large and heavy, and had a back that rose high above Grandfather's white head. This back was curiously carved in openwork, so as to represent flowers and foliage, and other devices which the children had often gazed at, but could never understand what they meant. On the very tiptop of the chair, over the head of Grandfather himself, was the likeness of a lion's head, which had such a savage grin that you would almost expect to hear it growl and snarl.

The children had seen Grandfather sitting in this chair ever since they could remember anything. Perhaps the younger of them supposed that he and the chair had come into the world together, and that both had always been as old as they were now. At this time, however, it happened to be the fashion for ladies to adorn their drawing-rooms with the oldest and oddest chairs that could be found. It seemed to Cousin Clara that, if these ladies could have seen Grandfather's old chair, they would have thought it worth all the rest together. She wondered if it were not even older than Grandfather himself, and longed to know all about its history.

— *Hawthorne.*

A clear and sharp-cut enunciation is one of the crowning charms and elegances of speech. Words so uttered are like coins fresh from the mint, compared with the worn and dingy drudges of long service.

The first requisite of good writing is to have an earnest and definite purpose, whether æsthetic or moral; and even good writing, to please long, must have more than an average amount either of imagination or common sense.

— *Lowell.*

LESSON XII.

THE BIBLE.

1. The Bible is the treasure of the poor, the solace of the sick, and the support of the dying; and while other books may amuse and instruct in a leisure hour, it is the peculiar triumph of that book to create light in the midst of darkness, to alleviate the sorrow which admits of no other alleviation, to direct a beam of hope to the heart which no other topic of consolation can reach; while guilt, despair, and death vanish at the touch of its holy inspiration.

2. There is something in the spirit and diction of the Bible which is found peculiarly adapted to arrest the attention of the plainest and most uncultivated minds. The simple structure of its sentences, combined with a lofty spirit of poetry—its familiar allusions to the scenes of nature and the transactions of common life—the delightful intermixture of narration with the doctrinal and preceptive parts—and the profusion of miraculous facts, which convert it into a sort of enchanted ground—its constant advertence to the Deity, whose perfections it renders almost visible and palpable—unite in bestowing upon it an interest which attaches to no other performance, and which, after assiduous and repeated perusal, invests it with much of the charm of novelty; like the great orb of day, at which we are

wont to gaze with unabated astonishment from infancy to old age.

3. What other book besides the Bible could be heard in public assemblies from year to year, with an attention that never tires, and an interest that never cloy? With few exceptions, let a portion of the sacred volume be recited in a mixed multitude, and though it has been heard a thousand times, a universal stillness ensues, every eye is fixed and every ear is awake and attentive. Select, if you can, any other composition, and let it be rendered equally familiar to the mind, and see whether it will produce this effect. — *Hall*.

LESSON XIII.

THE GARRET OF THE GAMBREL-ROOFED HOUSE.

It has a flooring of laths with ridges of mortar squeezed up between them, which if you tread on you will go to — the Lord have mercy on you! where *will* you go to? — the same being crossed by narrow bridges of boards, on which you may put your feet, but with fear and trembling. Above you and around you are beams and joists, on some of which you may see, when the light is let in, the marks of the conchoidal clippings of the broadaxe, showing the rude way in which the timber was shaped as it came, full of sap, from the neighboring forest. It is a realm of darkness and thick dust, and shroud-like cobwebs, and dead things they wrap in their gray folds. For a garret is like a seashore, where wrecks are thrown up, and slowly go to pieces. There is the cradle which

the old man you just remember was rocked in; there is the ruin of the bedstead he died on; that ugly slanting contrivance used to be put under his pillow in the days when his breath came hard; there is his old chair with both arms gone, symbol of the desolate time when he had nothing earthly left to lean on; there is the large wooden reel which the blear-eyed old deacon sent the minister's lady, who thanked him graciously, and twirled it smilingly, and in fitting season bowed it out decently to the limbo of troublesome conveniences. And there are old leather portmanteaus, like stranded porpoises, their mouths gaping in gaunt hunger for the food with which they used to be gorged to bulging repletion; and old brass andirons, waiting until time shall revenge them on their paltry substitutes, and they shall have their own again, and bring with them the forestick and backlog of ancient days; and the empty churn, with its idle dasher, and the brown, shaky old spinning-wheel, which was running, it may be, in the days when they were hanging the Salem witches. — *Holmes*.

LESSON XIV.

THE VAN TASSEL HOUSE.

It was one of those spacious farmhouses, with high-ridged but lowly-sloping roofs, built in the style handed down from the first Dutch settlers; the low projecting eaves forming a piazza along the front capable of being closed up in bad weather. Under this were hung flails, harness, various utensils of husbandry, and nets for

fishing in the neighboring river. Benches were built along the sides for summer use; and a great spinning wheel at one end and a churn at the other, showed the the various uses to which this important porch might be devoted.

From this piazza the wandering Ichabod entered the hall, which formed the center of the mansion and the place of usual residence. Here, rows of resplendent pewter ranged on a long dresser, dazzled his eyes. In one corner stood a huge bag of wool ready to be spun; in another, a quantity of linsey-woolsey just from the loom. Ears of Indian corn, and strings of dried apples and peaches, hung in gay festoons along the wall, mingled with the gaud of red peppers; and a door left ajar gave him a peep into the best parlor, where the claw-footed chairs and dark mahogany tables shone like mirrors. Andirons, with their accompanying shovel and tongs, glistened from their covert of asparagus tops; mock oranges and conch shells decorated the mantelpiece; strings of various-colored birds' eggs were suspended above it; a great ostrich egg was hung from the center of the room; and a corner cupboard, knowingly left open, displayed immense treasures of old silver and well-mended china. — *Irving*.

A cheerful temper, joined with innocence, will make beauty attractive, knowledge delightful, and wit good-natured. It will lighten sickness, poverty, and affliction, convert ignorance into an amiable simplicity, and render deformity itself agreeable. — *Addison*.

LESSON XV.

THE FLOWER OF LIBERTY.

1. What flower is this that greets the morn,
Its hues from heaven so freshly born?
With burning star and flaring brand
It kindles all the sunset land.
Oh, tell us what its name may be!
Is this the Flower of Liberty?
 It is the Banner of the Free,
 The starry Flower of Liberty!
2. In savage Nature's fair abode,
Its tender seed our fathers sowed;
The storm-winds rocked its swelling bud,
Its opening leaves were streaked with blood;
Till, lo! earth's tyrants shook to see
The full-blown Flower of Liberty!
 Then hail the Banner of the Free,
 The starry Flower of Liberty!
3. Behold its streaming rays unite,
One mingling flood of braided light;
The red that fires the Southern rose,
With spotless white from Northern snows,
And, spangled o'er its azure, see
The sister stars of Liberty.
 Then hail the Banner of the Free,
 The starry Flower of Liberty!

4. The blades of heroes fence it round;
Where'er it springs is holy ground;
From tower and dome its glories spread;
It waves where lonely sentries tread.
It makes the land, as ocean, free;
And plants an empire on the sea!
Then hail the Banner of the Free,
The starry Flower of Liberty!
5. Thy sacred leaves, fair Freedom's flower,
Shall ever float on dome and tower
To all their heavenly colors true,
In blackening frost, or crimson dew;
And God love us as we love thee,
Thrice holy Flower of Liberty!
Then hail the Banner of the Free,
The starry Flower of Liberty!

— *Holmes.*

To-morrow cheats us all. Why dost thou stay,
And leave undone what should be done to-day?
Begin, the present minute's in thy power;
But still to adjourn, and wait a fitter hour,
Is like the clown, who at some river's side
Expecting stands, in hopes the running tide
Will all ere long be past.— Fool! not to know
It still has flowed the same, and will forever flow.

— *Hughes.*

LESSON XVI.

THE BLUE JAYS.

I once had the chance of doing a kindness to a household of blue jays, which they received with very friendly condescension. I had had my eye for some time upon a nest, and was puzzled by a constant fluttering of what seemed full-grown wings in it whenever I drew nigh. At last I climbed the tree, in spite of angry protests from the old birds against my intrusion. The mystery had a very simple solution. In building the nest, a long piece of pack-thread had been somewhat loosely woven in. Three of the young birds had contrived to entangle themselves in it, and had become full-grown without being able to launch themselves upon the air. One was unharmed; another had so tightly twisted the cord about its shank that one foot was curled up and seemed paralyzed; the third, in its struggles to escape, had sawn through the flesh of the thigh, and so much harmed itself, that I thought it humane to put an end to its misery. When I took out my knife to cut their hempen bonds, the heads of the family seemed to divine my friendly intent. Suddenly ceasing their cries and threats, they perched quietly within reach of my hand, and watched me in my work of manumission. This, owing to the fluttering terror of the prisoners, was an affair of some delicacy;

but ere long I was rewarded by seeing one of them fly away to a neighboring tree, while the cripple, making a parachute of his wings, came lightly to the ground, and hopped off as well as he could with one leg, obsequiously waited on by his elders. A week later I had the satisfaction of meeting him in the pine walk, in good spirits, and already so far recovered as to be able to balance himself with the lame foot. I have no doubt that in his old age he accounted for his lameness by some handsome story of a wound received at the famous Battle of the Pines, where one tribe, overcome by numbers, was driven from its ancient camping ground. — *Lowell*.

LESSON XVII.

LOVE OF COUNTRY AND OF HOME.

1. There is a land, of every land the pride,
Beloved by heaven o'er all the world beside;
Where brighter suns dispense serener light,
And milder moons imparadise the night:
A land of beauty, virtue, valor, truth,
Time-tutored age, and love-exalted youth.
2. The wandering mariner, whose eye explores
The wealthiest isles, the most enchanting shores,
Views not a realm so bountiful and fair,
Nor breathes the spirit of a purer air;
In every clime, the magnet of his soul,
Touched by remembrance, trembles to that pole:

3. For in this land of heaven's peculiar grace,
The heritage of nature's noblest race,
There is a spot of earth supremely blest,
A dearer, sweeter spot than all the rest,
Where man, creation's tyrant, casts aside
His sword and scepter, pageantry and pride,
While, in his softened looks, benignly blend
The sire, the son, the husband, father, friend.
4. Here woman reigns; the mother, daughter, wife,
Strews with fresh flowers the narrow way of life;
In the clear heaven of her delightful eye,
An angel-guard of loves and graces lie;
Around her knees domestic duties meet,
And fireside pleasures gambol at her feet.
Where shall that land, that spot of earth be found?
Art thou a man? a patriot? look around;
Oh! thou shalt find, howe'er thy footsteps roam,
That land *thy* country, and that spot *thy* home.

—*James Montgomery.*

WASHINGTON.

Soldier and statesman, rarest unison;
High-poised example of great duties done
Simply as breathing, a world's honors worn
As life's indifferent gifts to all men born;
Dumb for himself, unless it were to God,
But for his barefoot soldiers eloquent,
Tramping the snow to coral where they trod,
Held by his awe in hollow-eyed content.

—*Lowell.*

LESSON XVIII.

LEARN TO DO SOMETHING WELL.

1. One of the most disquieting features of the social condition of our times is the rush of young men to the cities. Resulting from this is the weakness and instability of the farming population as compared with the same class half a century ago. Steadiness of national character goes with firmness of foothold on the soil. We may well look with alarm on a condition in which all men of wealth and power shall be gathered in the cities, while the farms are left to the weak and inefficient or to the peasants of other nations. As matters are, the cities are great destroyers of human life. We have not learned properly to govern them nor to make them effective, and every city is full of human failures, results of misdirected effort. A tour of the principal streets, halls, and meeting places on Sunday evening in any great city will show how terribly true this is. Certainly one-fourth the present population of such a city as San Francisco, for example, has no real business there. These people are doing nothing that is effective for themselves or helpful to others, and the condition of the remaining three-fourths, and most likely their own condition, would be distinctly improved if these misfit persons would go back to the farms.

2. No one can succeed in city or country unless he is able or willing to do some one thing well and stick to it. Because the life of the country is simpler and more honest, it is easier for a man of moderate ability to fit into it. I call it more honest, because the farm life deals with nature at first hand, while the city life deals with the shifting relations of men.

“The farmer trades with nature through no middleman. Nature is as honest as eternity, and she never fails to meet the just dues of those who have claims upon her.”

3. In the city, opportunities to gratify ambition are more numerous and greater than in the country. But opportunity comes only to the man who can make use of it. For a man who can do important things and can do them well, the city will always furnish something worthy to do. Hence, the success of thousands of men who have gone to the cities with their worldly goods on their backs and no capital but their brains.

4. But the great majority of those who leave the farms are not of this type. They have not learned to do anything well, least of all anything the people of the cities want. Hence, the failure of those who go to the cities without capital of any kind, or with capital of other kind than brains.

5. The great obstacle in the way of the effective working man is not organized capital; it is inefficiency. It is the great crowd of those who can do nothing well, and whose presence causes a general scramble whenever there is any work to be done. Capitalists could and

would double the wages of labor if they were assured of intelligent, effective, and loyal service. Brains and heart are the only servants that a man can afford to pay for. If you cannot furnish one or the other of these, there is no help for you. You cannot live by the work of your hands. 'Least of all can you do this in the city, where competition is severe, and where three men are struggling for the chance to do the work of one.

6. There is no doubt that the congestion of the cities is in part the effect of unwise legislation. We have used every effort to be something more than a nation of farmers, and in this effort we have almost ruined our farms. But legislative action is not the main cause of the congestion of the cities. The other causes are bringing about the same result in all civilized nations. Even Rome has had a "real estate boom," an unfortunate condition which arises as the people crowd into the capital. It is not clear what the end will be or how the evil will find its remedy. But this we may say to every farmer's son: You have your own life to make. In the country you are sure of your ground. You will get what you deserve. While your rewards may not be brilliant, your failure will not be ruinous. Do not go to the city unless you are sure that the city needs you. If you go with nothing to give that the city cares for, you will find yourself cast aside. Brains the city wants, and will pay for and devour. Loyalty of service will be recognized and valued in this world or any other. Hand-work pure and simple, without skill or pride in it, commands no price in the market. There is no chance about this. The results are sure as fate. If you do poor things poorly,

you will always be poor. What you can do, a bucket of coal and a bucket of water, guided by a thimbleful of brains, will do more effectively. When the time shall come that each workman can use his power to the best advantage, we shall have an end to the labor problem. The final answer to the labor problem is that each shall solve it for himself.

7. When you have solved the labor problem for yourself and are ready with the answer, then you can go to the city, and wherever you go you will find the success you deserve. If all men waited as you should wait before rushing to the cities, we should have no labor problem, no problem of municipal government, and nothing to fear from the desertion of the farms or from the congestion of the towns. Learn to do something well. It will make a man of you, and wherever he goes a man will find that he is needed.

David Starr Jordan

President of the Leland Stanford Jr. University.

When the victory shall be complete,—when there shall be neither a slave nor a drunkard on the earth,—how proud the title of that land which may truly claim to be the birthplace and the cradle of both those revolutions that shall have ended in that victory! How nobly distinguished that people who shall have planted and nurtured to maturity both the political and moral freedom of their species!

—*Abraham Lincoln.*

LESSON XIX.

THE BIRTHDAY OF WASHINGTON.

The birthday of the "Father of his Country!" May it ever be freshly remembered by American hearts! May it ever re-awaken in them a filial veneration for his memory; ever re-kindle the fires of patriotic regard to the country which he loved so well; to which he gave his youthful vigor and his youthful energy during the perilous period of the early Indian warfare; to which he devoted his life, in the maturity of his powers, in the field; to which again he offered the counsels of his wisdom and his experience as president of the convention that framed our Constitution; which he guided and directed while in the chair of state, and for which the last prayer of his earthly supplication was offered up when it came the moment for him so well, and so grandly, and so calmly to die! He was the first man of the time in which he grew. His memory is first and most sacred in our love; and ever hereafter, till the last drop of blood shall freeze in the last American heart, his name shall be a spell of power and might.

— *Rufus Choate.*

DUTIES OF AMERICAN CITIZENS.

This lovely land, this glorious liberty, these benign institutions, the dear purchase of our fathers, are ours; ours to enjoy, ours to preserve, ours to transmit. Generations past, and generations to come, hold us respon-

sible for this sacred trust. Our fathers, from behind, admonish us with their anxious paternal voices; posterity calls out to us from the bosom of the future; the world turns hither its solicitous eyes — all, all conjure us to act wisely and faithfully in the relation which we sustain. We can never, indeed, pay the debt which is upon us; but by virtue, by morality, by religion, by the cultivation of every good principle and every good habit, we may hope to enjoy the blessing through our day, and to leave it unimpaired to our children. Let us feel deeply how much of what we are and of what we possess we owe to this liberty and these institutions of government. Nature has, indeed, given us a soil which yields bounteously to the hands of industry; the mighty and fruitful ocean is before us, and the skies over our heads shed health and vigor. But what are lands, and seas, and skies, to civilized man, without society, without knowledge, without morals, without religious culture? and how can these be enjoyed, in all their extent and all their excellence, but under the protection of wise institutions and a free government? There is not one of us who does not, at this moment and at every moment, experience in his own condition and in the condition of those most near and dear to him, the influence and the benefits of this liberty and these institutions. Let us then acknowledge the blessing; let us feel it deeply and powerfully; let us cherish a strong affection for it, and resolve to maintain and perpetuate it.

— *Daniel Webster.*

REVIEW.

SUMMARY OF THE MOST IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS AND RULES.

(This summary is given for reference and for use in reviews.)

TO THE TEACHER: The value of reviews depends almost wholly on the method of the teacher. There is no other exercise in school that is as worthless as a routine review. Exact teaching is the only teaching that stimulates mental activity on the part of the pupil and compels him to realize himself. The value of opportunity depends on the kind of opportunity. The method of the teacher inspires or stupefies.

Require the pupil to illustrate the definitions and apply the rules. The pupil should be held to the most exact statements and the most complete illustrations. Recitation without ample illustration and application by the pupil is a schoolroom farce. A pupil may perfectly recite the text of his lesson, yet not know the lesson. In some schools pupils learn much they never know. The method of the author and of the teacher should compel the pupil to be more than a passive receiver of instruction; it should compel him to be an active doer. Mere learning is not culture; it is only the crude material which the mind uses in acquiring culture. Learning is little more than a gift; culture is the product of the self-activity of the mind.

SENTENCES.

A sentence is a group of words expressing a thought.

The **subject** of a sentence is the part of the sentence about which something is said.

The **predicate** of a sentence is the part of the sentence that expresses what is said about the subject.

A declarative sentence is one that declares or tells something.

An **interrogative sentence** is one that asks a question.

An **imperative sentence** is one that expresses a request or a command.

An **exclamatory sentence** is one that expresses emotion or surprise.

A **simple sentence** is one that contains but one assertion.

A **complex sentence** is one that contains one principal assertion and one or more subordinate assertions.

A **compound sentence** is one that contains two or more coordinate assertions.

GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

A **grammatical term** is a word, or a group of related words, that performs a distinct office in the structure of a sentence.

NOUN-TERMS.

A **noun** is a word used as a name. A **noun-term** is a word, or group of related words, that does the work of a noun. In form it may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*.

ADJECTIVE-TERMS.

An **adjective** is a word used to limit the meaning of a noun. An **adjective-term** is a word, or group of related words, that does the work of an adjective. In form it may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*.

VERB-TERMS.

A **verb** is a word used to assert something of a person or a thing. A **verb-term** is a word, or group of related words, that does the work of a verb. In form it may be a *verb* or a *verb-phrase*.

ADVERB-TERMS.

An **adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. An **adverb-term** is a word, or group of related words, that does the work of an adverb. In form it may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*.

PHRASES.

A **phrase** is a group of related words *not* containing subject and predicate and doing the work of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

A **substantive phrase** is one that does the work of a noun.

An **adjective phrase** is one that does the work of an adjective.

An **adverbial phrase** is one that does the work of an adverb.

A **prepositional phrase** consists of a preposition and its object.

An **infinitive phrase** is one introduced by *to* followed by a verb.

A **participial phrase** is one introduced by a participle, and doing the work of an adjective.

A **simple phrase** is a single, unmodified phrase.

A **complex phrase** is a modified phrase.

A **compound phrase** is composed of two or more phrases of equal rank joined by a conjunction.

An **idiomatic phrase** is one peculiar to a language.

A **phrase** may be wholly independent in meaning and grammar.

CLAUSES.

A **clause** is a group of words containing subject and predicate and doing the work of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

A **substantive clause** is one that does the work of a noun.

An **adjective clause** is one that does the work of an adjective.

An **adverbial clause** is one that does the work of an adverb.

An *adverbial clause* may denote: *time, place, manner, degree, cause, result, or purpose.*

PRONOUNS.

A **pronoun** is a word that *stands* for a noun.

A **personal pronoun** is one that stands for a noun and shows by its form whether it is of the *first*, the *second*, or the *third* person.

A **relative pronoun** is one used to represent a preceding noun or pronoun, called the antecedent, and to connect with it a clause.

An **interrogative pronoun** is one used to ask a question.

An **adjective pronoun** is an adjective used as a noun.

VERBS.

A **verb** is a word that is used to assert something of a person or a thing.

Verbs may be classified as complete or incomplete.

A **complete verb** is one that does not require a complement to complete the predicate.

An **incomplete verb** is one that requires a complement to complete the predicate.

A **transitive verb** is one that, in the active voice, requires an object to complete the predicate.

An **intransitive verb** is one that does not require an object to complete the predicate.

An **intransitive verb** may take an object that expresses an idea similar in meaning to the verb itself.

A **copulative verb** is one that requires a complement that describes the subject.

A **regular verb** is one that forms its past tense and past participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense-form.

An **irregular verb** is one that does *not* form its past tense and past participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense-form.

COPULA — COMPLEMENT.

A **copulative verb** joins together, in logical union, the subject and the predicate of a proposition. It asserts something of some person or thing.

The **copula** is a single verb or a verb-phrase.

The **complement** of a copulative verb is the *word*, *phrase*, or *clause* which completes the verb by describing the subject. Complements are attributive or substantive.

The attributive complement denotes a quality conception.

The substantive complement denotes an object conception.

The attributive complement is usually an adjective of the word-form. The substantive complement is always a noun-term. In form it may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*.

VERB-PHRASES.

A **verb-phrase** is a phrase that does the work of a verb.

A **progressive verb-phrase** is one composed of an incomplete participle and a tense of the auxiliary *be*.

An **emphatic verb-phrase** is one composed of the present or the past tense of the auxiliary *do* and the root infinitive of a principal verb.

A **potential verb-phrase** is one composed of one of the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*, and the root infinitive of a principal verb.

A **conditional verb-phrase** is one used in making a conditional statement.

An **active verb-phrase** is one in which the subject is the actor.

A **passive verb-phrase** is one in which the subject is the receiver of the action.

Participles are verbal adjectives — that is, they have the construction of adjectives.

Participles are of two classes — imperfect or present, and perfect or past.

An *imperfect* or *present* participle is formed by adding *ing* to the root of the verb.

The *perfect* or *past* participle ends in *ed*, *t*, or *n*.

Infinitives are verbal nouns — that is, they have the construction of nouns.

Infinitives are of two classes — the root-infinitive and the participial infinitive.

The **root-infinitive** is the simplest form of the verb — the form of the first person, present, indicative (except in the verb *be*).

The **participial infinitive** is formed by adding *ing* to the root of the verb.

MODE — TENSE.

Mode is the form of the verb that indicates the manner of the assertion.

There are three modes — the indicative, the imperative, and the subjunctive.

The **indicative mode** expresses being, action, or state as a fact.

The **subjunctive mode** is used in subordinate clauses to express a future contingency, a supposition contrary to fact.

The **imperative mode** expresses being, action, or state as willed or desired.

Tense is the form of the verb that indicates the time of the act or state and the degree of completeness.

The **present tense** of a verb expresses being, action, or state in present time.

The **past tense** of a verb expresses being, action, or state in past time.

The **future tense** of a verb expresses being, action, or state in future time.

The **present-perfect tense** of a verb expresses being, action, or state as completed at the present time.

The **past-perfect tense** of a verb expresses being, action, or state as completed at or before some past time.

The **future-perfect tense** of a verb expresses being, action, or state that will have been completed before some future time.

CONJUGATION — VOICE.

The **conjugation** of a verb is the regular arrangement of its several *modes, tenses, voices, numbers, and persons*.

Voice is that form of a transitive verb which shows whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

Transitive verbs have two forms to express voice — the active and the passive.

Verbs are in the **active voice** when they represent the subject as acting.

Verbs are in the **passive voice** when they represent the subject as being acted upon.

THE SENTENCE.

The **elements** of a sentence are the *words, phrases, and clauses* that perform distinct offices in that sentence.

A **simple element** consists of a single *word, phrase, or clause*, unmodified.

A **complex element** consists of a single *word, phrase, or clause*, and a modifying element.

A **compound element** consists of two or more simple or complex elements joined by a coördinate conjunction.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS — SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS —
INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS.

The **principal elements** of a sentence are the parts that make the unqualified assertion.

The **subordinate elements** of a sentence are the modifiers of the principal elements.

The **independent elements** of a sentence are the words and phrases that are not grammatically related to the sentence with which they stand.

CAPITALIZATION — PUNCTUATION.

Begin with a **capital** :

I. The first word of every sentence, of every line of poetry, of every direct quotation, maxim or question, and of phrases, clauses, or statements of a series separately numbered.

II. Proper nouns, proper adjectives, points of the compass when used as nouns, and common nouns when strongly personified.

III. Names applied to Deity, names of religious sects, of political parties, of days of the week, of months, and of holidays.

IV. Every important word in the titles of books, essays, or poems, titles of office or honor used to designate particular individuals, and names of important events in history.

The **period** is used:

- I. At the close of every declarative or imperative sentence.
- II. After headings, titles or signatures.
- III. To denote an abbreviation, to mark Roman numerals, and as the decimal point.

The **interrogation** point is used at the end of every direct question.

The **exclamation** point is used after exclamatory words, phrases, and sentences.

The **colon** is used:

- I. To separate the principal members of a compound sentence, if either member contains a semicolon.
- II. Before direct, formal quotations, or a series of statements.

The **semicolon** is used:

- I. To separate clauses and phrases in a series having a common dependence.
- II. To precede words which introduce an illustrative phrase.

The **comma** is used:

- I. To separate the short members of a compound sentence when closely connected.
- II. To separate the subject from the predicate when the former is long, complicated, or ends with a verb and the predicate begins with one.
- III. To separate adjective phrases or clauses, when not restrictive, from the words which they modify.

IV. To separate introductory adverbial phrases or clauses from the words which they modify.

V. To separate a series of words or phrases in the same construction.

VI. Before short, informal quotations.

Quotation marks are used:

I. To enclose words in the language of another.

II. To enclose titles of books, essays, newspapers, etc., when not otherwise distinguished.

The **dash** is used to indicate an abrupt change in the construction or the thought of a sentence.

Marks of parenthesis are used to enclose explanatory remarks that are not grammatically connected with the sentence.

The **apostrophe** is used to show the possessive case of nouns, to denote the plural of figures and letters, and to mark the omission of letters.

The **hyphen** is used between the parts of a compound word, to divide a word into syllables, and to mark the division of a word at the end of a line.

THE MOST IMPORTANT RULES OF SYNTAX.

Syntax is that part of grammar which treats of the construction of sentences; the proper arrangement of words in sentences according to established usage.

I. The verb must agree with its subject in person and number.

II. The subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case.

III. The verb *to be* is preceded and followed by the same case.

IV. The object of a transitive verb, of a preposition, of a participle, or of an infinitive, is in the objective case.

V. Appositives are in the same case as the nouns they limit.

VI. A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and person.

When the gender of the antecedent is indefinite, the masculine form of the pronoun is used.

VII. Adjectives that imply number must agree in number with the nouns which they modify.

The limiting adjective *the* should be omitted before proper and abstract nouns when used in their general signification.

The limiting adjective *the* should be repeated before each part of a coordinate combination when the nouns apply to objects individually different.

VIII. The present infinitive should follow the past tense of the verb, except when the time indicated by the infinitive is prior to that indicated by the verb.

IX. The verb is plural:

1. When the subject is a collective noun denoting *multitude*.
2. When the subject has a coordinate construction, the members of which, considered separately or together, convey *plurality* of idea.

X. The verb is singular:

1. When the subject is a collective noun, denoting many considered as a whole.
2. When the subject has a coordinate construction, the members of which, considered separately or together, convey *unity* of idea.

XI. When the members of the coordinate subject are of different numbers and persons, the verb generally agrees with the one nearest to it.

WRITTEN EXERCISE.

TO THE TEACHER: The following written exercises afford an excellent opportunity, not only to test the pupil's knowledge of the various subjects treated in the body of the text, but to train him in the correct use of words. The root weakness of most teaching is the fact that it ends with impressions. The pupil is not required to assimilate his impressions.

1. Bring to the class two simple declarative sentences; two simple interrogative sentences; two simple imperative sentences; two simple exclamatory sentences.

2. Bring to the class two complex declarative sentences; two complex interrogative sentences; two complex imperative sentences; two complex exclamatory sentences.

3. Bring to the class three sentences, using in each a different form of the noun-term as the subject of a verb; as the object of a verb; as the complement of a copulative verb; as the object of a transitive verb.

4. Bring to the class three sentences, using in each a different form of the adjective-term to limit the subject of a verb; the object of a verb; the complement of a verb.

5. Bring to the class two sentences, using in the first a single verb as the verb-term; in the second a verb-phrase containing a verb and a participle.

6. Bring to the class three sentences, using in each a different form of the adverb-term.

7. Bring to the class five sentences, using in the first an adverb denoting *time*; in the second an adverb denoting *place*; in the third an adverb denoting *manner*; in the fourth an adverb denoting *degree*; in the fifth an adverb denoting *cause*

8. Bring to the class five sentences, using in the first a noun as an indirect object; in the second, as the objective attribute; in the third, as an adverbial objective; in the fourth, as a cognate object; in the fifth, as an appositive.

9. Bring to the class five sentences, using in the first a phrase as the subject of a verb; in the second, as the object of a verb; in the third, as the complement of a verb; in the fourth, as the object of a participle; in the fifth, used independently.

10. Bring to the class five sentences, using in the first a clause as the subject of a verb; in the second, as the object of a verb; in the third, as the complement of a verb; in the fourth, as the object of a participle; in the fifth, as the object of an infinitive.

11. Bring to the class three sentences showing that the personal pronoun *it* may be used: (1) as the grammatical subject, to stand for the logical subject; (2) as an impersonal subject, not as standing for any real actor; (3) as an impersonal or indefinite object of a verb.

12. Bring to the class sentences illustrating the several uses: (1) of the simple relative pronouns; (2) of the compound relative pronouns.

13. Bring to the class six sentences, using in the first a progressive verb-phrase; in the second, an emphatic verb-phrase; in the third, a potential verb-phrase; in the fourth, a conditional verb-phrase; in the fifth, an active verb-phrase; in the sixth, a passive verb-phrase.

14. Bring to the class three sentences, using in the first a participial phrase to limit the subject of the sentence; in the second, to limit the object of a verb; in the third, to limit the complement of a verb.

15. Bring to the class sentences using the infinitive in *ing*: (1) as the subject of a verb; (2) as the object of a verb; (3) as the complement of a verb.

16. Bring to the class sentences using the phrasal infinitive: (1) as the subject of a verb; (2) as the object of a verb; (3) as the complement of a verb.

17. Bring to the class sentences showing that the infinitive in *ing* and the phrasal infinitive are often interchangeable.

18. Bring to the class sentences showing that participles are verbal adjectives and that infinitives are verbal nouns.

19. Bring to the class sentences showing: (1) that a participle may take a word, a phrase, or a clause as an object; (2) that it may be modified by a word, a phrase, or a clause.

20. Bring to the class sentences showing: (1) that the phrasal infinitive may take a word, a phrase, or a clause as an object; (2) that it may be modified by a word, a phrase, or a clause.

21. Bring to the class sentences showing that participles and infinitives do not assert anything, therefore cannot be used as predicates.

22. Compose two simple sentences and change them to equivalent complex sentences.

23. Compose two simple sentences and change them to equivalent compound sentences.

24. Compose two complex sentences and change to equivalent compound sentences.

25. Compose two compound sentences and change them to equivalent complex sentences.

APPENDIX.

NOTES FOR TEACHERS AND PUPILS.

Both teachers and pupils are requested to give the following notes on the PARTS OF SPEECH and the SENTENCE due consideration. It is believed that a careful study of these notes and the SUGGESTIONS that follow them will prove helpful to pupils in the grammar grades, also to young, inexperienced teachers.

In the English language a word does not belong exclusively to a single class or part of speech. The part of speech to which a word belongs in a particular sentence depends upon its use in that sentence. That is, the same form of a word may do the work of several parts of speech. The master-key that unlocks every profitable system of teaching grammar is *therefore*, not *because*. In English the power of any word and its influence in the sentence are rarely dependent on its form; its use and influence depend almost wholly on its logical relation to the context. What part of speech a word is cannot be determined at sight, but only by its connections and dependence. Young teacher, this is an important fact, and pupils should be led to see it clearly in the primary grades.

Illustration: In the sentence, "Black is a color," the word *black* is the subject of the sentence, *therefore* it is a noun. In the sentence, "John is a black boy," the word *black* limits a noun, *therefore* it is an adjective. In the sentence, "Black my shoes," the word *black* expresses action, *therefore* it is a verb. A pupil should be first taught to see what a word does in the sentence, then to infer what part of speech it is.

NOUNS.

The noun has only two case-forms, the nominative and the possessive. The nominative, the objective, and the independent cases are alike. If we place the possessive form of nouns with the limiting adjectives, the noun has but one case-form — the nominative. It varies for case only to denote possession.

PRONOUNS.

Personal pronouns have fixed forms for different uses — number-forms, person-forms, gender-forms, and case-forms. These forms should be mastered and their uses exhibited in original sentences.

VERBS.

The changes in the form of the verb to correspond to changes in its subject are very limited. With the exception of the verb *to be* in the indicative mode, present and past tenses, singular number, there are but few changes in the form of the English verb to denote person, number, tense, mode, or voice.

ADJECTIVES.

The adjective is sometimes inflected to show differences of *degree*; the inflection of an adjective is called its *comparison*. With the exception of the two adjectives *this* and *that*, the adjective keeps the same form, whether joined to a singular or to a plural noun. *This* and *that* have the plurals *these* and *those*.

ADVERBS.

Many adverbs, especially those denoting manner, admit of comparison.

The *preposition*, the *conjunction*, and the *interjection* have no variation of form; they are called the uninflected or invariable parts of speech or indeclinables.

From the foregoing brief review of inflection, it is found that but few forms are found in English, and these are easily learned as a part of the content of the expression. English is primarily a logical language, and secondarily a formal language. Logic and position determine relations; hence the disciplinary value of the study. In English memory is subordinated to reason. If the language is taught as a logical language, the pupil will not only learn to use it correctly but understandingly. An average seventh grade pupil should learn all there is of inflection in English in one month. The pupil should master what little there is of inflection before he enters the high school. He should be put through a severe course of training in the use of the important inflections; he should be required to illustrate his knowledge of the subject in original sentences.

ORIGIN OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

The limits of this APPENDIX will allow only a word in regard to the origin of the parts of speech and the classification of sentences with regard to their use and structure.

A *thought* is the conclusion of the mind in which concepts are connected, one as a subject, the other as a predicate. As every thought is the affirmation of some attribute belonging to a subject, it follows that each judgment unites an attribute to a subject, and that a sentence must contain words that express these elements in the thought. Some ideas are subjects; words used to express these are *nouns* and *pronouns*; other ideas are attributes of objects; words used to express these are *adjectives*; other ideas are attributes of attributes; words used to express these are *adverbs*. When an attribute is asserted of a subject, the word or words used to make the assertion is a *verb*.

THE SENTENCE.

In structure, the English sentence is so simple that a few well-illustrated talks or lessons should leave with an average seventh or eighth grade pupil a clear idea of the organic forms and uses of the grammatical terms. Our language is almost grammarless. A learner is not confused with the forms of words which determine relations. The text-book grammar of our language is easily acquired, but the mastery of the sentence is the work of a lifetime.

The kind of thought to be expressed determines the structure of the sentence that expresses it. A single, simple thought is expressed by a simple sentence; a complex thought, by a complex sentence; consecutive, coordinate thought by a compound sentence. The kind of sentence describes the mental state. The mind of man is a real being, governed by laws evolved by its own activity.

With regard to use, the form of the sentence depends primarily upon the relations between the writer and reader.

If the writer desires to convey to the reader a fact or a truth, he uses the declarative form of the sentence; if he wishes to elicit information, he uses the interrogative form of the sentence; if he wishes the reader to do something, he uses the imperative form of the sentence; if he wishes to express strong feeling or emotion, he uses the exclamatory form of the sentence.

SUGGESTIONS.

The teacher of English in the common schools should ever bear in mind the fact that there are some things that every pupil must know in order to express his thoughts clearly and forcibly, and that there are many things in grammar that he does not

need to know to use his mother tongue correctly. The knowledge that a pupil acquires in school will be of comparatively little use to society if he be unable clearly and forcibly to express his ideas. The most powerful weapon in the hands of the teacher, of the minister, of the lawyer, of the editor, is a vigorous command of good English. Clearness of statement is one distinguishing mark of difference between the cultured and the ignorant.

It matters not to the pupil whether we have three or four modes if he uses the language clearly and forcibly. In the study of language, especially the English, theory without practice has little or no value. The ability to quote a grammar from the title-page to the end would in no way improve the speech of the unthinking. The recitation of grammatical facts will no more make correct speakers and writers than the recitation of moral maxims will make good citizens.

THE NEED.

A pupil's greatest need is the ability to give clear expression to his learning. This power he can acquire in only one way — by giving expression to his thoughts orally and with the pen.

As a large majority of pupils leave school before the close of the eighth year, they should have such instruction in language and grammar as will best fit them for the duties of life. Only through much drill in composition work can pupils form the habit of expressing their thoughts correctly, clearly, and concisely.

Many a bright and deserving young man has failed to secure a desirable position because of his badly-constructed letter of application. The average eighth-grade pupil cannot write a correctly and concisely worded letter, or a clean, strong composition on the most familiar subject. He has not learned how to

give expression to his impressions. He needs methodical training in sentence-building, in copying, in reproduction, and in writing compositions on familiar subjects.

GOOD ENGLISH.

By good English is meant the English used by the best writers — by the cultivated and refined. It is not governed by a book of arbitrary rules. No power yet exerted has been able to establish a fixed and immovable standard of written English. The style of written and spoken English varies. Language is but an instrument, a tool, and changes as the users of it change.

Accuracy in the use of language is acquired through the reflective use of words in the expression of original thought, and by the imitation of excellent models; not by rules and theory. Clearness in speaking and in writing is acquired only by thinking and writing. It is an intellectual quality and can be cultivated in the common schools.

Three score and ten years spent in analyzing sentences and parsing words would not materially increase the pupil's vocabulary or develop in him a love for literature. The barrenness of the merely formal in the study of English is seen the moment the pupil is required to write a composition. The formal cannot develop thought power, cultivate expression, or inspire purpose. Only the organic and the real answer the demands of the soul.

In language study, thinking is more important than memorizing. Right thinking and right feeling are safer guides to correct expression than the rules of grammar and rhetoric. "Inaccurate writing is generally the expression of inaccurate thinking." Clear expression is born of clear thinking. Definite convictions usually clothe themselves in brief, clear language. Grammar and rhetoric are helpful only to the pupil that can think.

COMPOSITION.

Composition is the one exercise that awakens a pupil to his highest state of self-activity. True it is that no school-work is fraught with more discouragements to the teacher. All the mental weaknesses of children, whether natural or acquired, are discovered the moment the children begin to write anything of their own composition. Errors in spelling, capitalization, paragraphing, grammar, and rhetoric, are all apt to show themselves in the same composition. While it is true that the average composition has in it many things to discourage, it is equally true that there are often to be found evidences of power which more than compensate for the want of accuracy in technical details. The pupil should be led to see that the frequent use of the pen under the careful editorial guidance of a skilled writer is the only true method of disclosing and removing defects which otherwise might never be brought to his knowledge. No other method of teaching English will make the correct forms of language familiar.

TECHNICAL GRAMMAR.

The study of formal technical grammar should not be commenced until the pupil can think its laws into use; then it should be taught inductively from the facts of the language. In teaching language, induction and deduction must go hand in hand; examples must lead up to definitions, and definitions must be applied to examples. The premature study of grammar, and the too minute correction of errors of spelling and grammar, have the effect of arousing a degree of self-consciousness when writing that seriously interferes with the flow of thought.

In what way does the mere ability to recite definitions and rules cultivate the art of expression or the ability to reason? A

text-book knowledge of rules cannot increase the flow of thought nor dislodge incorrect habits of expression. Mere rules cannot correct an inveterate habit. A pupil may quote a grammar or a rhetoric from the title page to the end and not be able to write a page of clean, strong English. Ample evidence that this last statement is true is on file in the office of every county superintendent in the country.

A pupil cannot acquire a correct use of language by studying technical grammar. Until he can think intelligently and use words reflectively, text-book grammar has little or no meaning to him. A pupil cannot acquire the art of expression by merely reciting the laws that govern the expression of thought. The study of English grammar, at any age, is only a help to the mastery of good English.

English is the most analytical of languages. Its sentence structure is logical, not formal. The study of the highly inflected languages has to do chiefly with words; the study of English, with grammatical terms as wholes. Parsing has to do with words as parts of speech; logical or thought analysis, with the grammatical terms as units. With this form of language-study, the inquiring pupil is delighted. The study of English for mental training will yet take its place along with mathematics and science.

Until recently the disciplinary value of the study of English was questioned by a large majority of the professional teachers. This fact is, perhaps, the reason why the study is not now receiving the attention in the common schools that it so clearly deserves. Strange, indeed, it is that the disciplinary value of the study of a language which introduces the pupil to the finest body of literature in the world was ever questioned by teachers of average intelligence.

THE RECITATION.

Every recitation affords the teacher an opportunity to train his pupils in the use of good English. Correct methods of instruction do not permit the pupil to disregard in any recitation the true end and aim of education — the cultivation of the power of expression. The method of the teacher should keep the pupil constantly on his guard in all he says during the recitation. Culture is not a gift; it is a progressive development, the result of the mind's own activity.

The method of the recitation should compel the pupil to express his thoughts and state text-book facts in the choicest language that he can command. Exact teaching persistently demands the very best effort of the pupil in all he says or does in the class-room; exact teaching compels the pupil to realize somewhat of himself in every effort to express his thoughts or feelings. Method that compels the pupil to do his very best in all he attempts to do is not only the practical in education; it is the philosophical also.

Methodical persistence on the part of the teacher is the only kind of persistence that will establish correct habits of thought and speech on the part of the pupil. In the recitation, the pupil should be required to revise his verbose and slovenly statements until he changes them into concise and clean ones. He should be required to revise every ungrammatical sentence until he changes it into good English. Nor are these requirements sufficiently exacting. A sentence may be grammatically correct and yet be a faulty sentence. Good English consists in expressing thought in language that cannot be misunderstood. A sentence that can be easily construed to mean more than one thing is not good English.

A MORAL AND INTELLECTUAL TEST.

The recitation is the best school test of a pupil's moral character. It gives a pupil an opportunity to define and describe himself. If he is manly and self-reliant, he will refuse promptings from his classmates; if he is indolent and dependent, he will seek every opportunity to shirk recitation. "It is the recitation, with its direct and indirect influence, which makes a pupil an independent, courageous student, or a hopeless beggar." A recitation should be made so exacting, so direct, so personal that a large majority of pupils will prepare their lessons.

The recitation is the best school-test of a pupil's intellectual character. From the manner in which a pupil expresses himself, a teacher can judge of his power to observe, to reflect, to imagine. Thinking is hard work, hence pupils are prone to clothe their ideas in ragged or incomplete sentences. The most persistent effort on the part of a teacher should be made to have a pupil express himself in clear, concise sentences. Training in expression should constitute a part of every recitation during the entire period of a pupil's school-life. Clearness of statement is evidence of culture. The mere ability to state a fact in careless or slovenly English does not suggest culture. Pupils should recite in their own language; they should not be permitted to quote the language of text-books—definitions excepted. The parrot-like recitation of facts in the language of others is not significant. The mind is not satisfied with the recitation of the words of others. Teacher, if you are a routine recitation hearer, get rid of the habit at once. Independent thinking on the part of teachers will lead to independent thinking on the part of pupils. Mere text-book facts are cheap and may be found in dictionaries, gazetteers, and encyclopedias.

INDEX.

Adjectives 35, 220
 Comparison of . . 35, 36
 Kinds of 35
 Parsing of 38
 Uses of 36, 37
 Adverbs . . 67, 68, 69, 220
 Of Place, Time, Cause,
 Manner and Degree 67
 Parsing of 71
 Appendix, 219-228
 And 167
 All over 167
 Adjective—Adverb . . 167
 Apprehend—Comprehend 167
 Apt—Liable—Likely . 167
 Angry—Mad 167
 Authentic—Genuine . 168
 Above 168
 Alone—Solitary . . . 168
 Avocation—Vocation . 168
 Allude—Mention—Refer 168
 Aggravate—Provoke . 169
 Among one another . . 169
 At—In 169
 And—Or 169
 Approach—Address—
 Petition 169
 Ain't 169
 Awful—Awfully . . . 169
 Answer—Reply 169

Books 188
 Bible, The 190
 Back out 169
 Been to 169
 Both 169
 Big—Great 169
 Balance—Remainder . 170
 But what 170
 But yet 170
 But 170
 Blame it on 170
 Clauses . . . 17-19, 95-98
 Adjective 96
 Adverbial 96
 Substantive 97
 Capitalization . . . 135, 136
 Composition . . 159, 164, 225
 Conjunctions . . . 77, 220
 Coordinate 77
 Subordinate 78
 Adversative 77
 Alternative 77
 Causal 77
 Copulative 77
 Correlative 78
 Copula—Complement 43-45
 Character—Reputation 170
 Corporal punishment . 170
 Citizen 170
 Compare to or with . . 170

Circumstances — Under		Infinitives	49, 87-92
or in	171	Interjections	78, 79, 220
Can — May	171	In — Into	174
Curious	171	If	174
Dirt — Earth	171	Ill — Sick	174
Differ — With, From	171	In so far as	174
Don't	171	Letter Writing	151-158
Duties of American Citizens	203	Like — As	174
Enough — Sufficient	171	Lend — Loan	174
Even up	171	Less — Fewer	174
Equally as well	171	Love — Like	175
Elegant — Splendid	172	Lay — Lie	175
Education	172	Learn — Teach	175
Except	172	Looks beautifully	175
Either	172	Love of Country and of Home	197
Faulty Diction	165	Learn to do Something Well	199
From — Of	173	Mode	52
Fetch — Carry — Bring	173	Imperative	54
Friend — Acquaintance	173	Indicative	53
Grammatical Terms	11-13	Subjunctive	53
Noun	11, 12	Mutual	175
Adjective	12	Mere	175
Verb	12	Merely — Simply	175
Adverb	12, 13	Make up their mind	175
Gerund	88	Nouns	20-23, 220
Good English	224	Parsing of	24, 25
Grandfather's Chair	188	Notes for Teachers and Pupils	219
Got	173	Neglect — Negligence	176
Good — Great	173	Nice	176
Hurry — Haste	173	Nicely	176
How	173	No use	176
Had have	173	Neither — Nor	176
Hain't	174	Not	176
Had — Ought	174		
Healthy — Wholesome	174		
How — That	174		

Origin of the Parts of	
Speech	221
Off of	176
Often	176
On to	176
Ought—Should	176
Other	177
Only	177
Only too willing . . .	178
Participles	48, 49, 83–86
Phrases	14–16, 93, 96, 97
Adjective	94
Adverbial	94
Substantive	93
Prepositions	72–76, 220
Pronouns	26, 27, 220
Personal	26, 27
Relative	28–30
Adjective	31
Interrogative . . .	31, 32
Parsing of	33, 34
Punctuation	136–140
Proven	178
Propose—Purpose . . .	178
Plead	178
Per	178
Portion—Part	178
Party—Person	178
Procure—Secure	178
Proof—Evidence	178
Procure—Get	179
Promise—Assure	179
Partly—Partially . . .	179
Present—Introduce . . .	179
Quantity—Number . . .	179
Quite	179

Recitation, The	228
Review	205–218
Rarely or ever	179
Raise—Increase	179
Sentence, The	7–10, 103–106, 222
Analysis of	107, 108, 112–117
Elements of	99, 101, 102
Principal Elements .	99, 100
Subordinate Elements	100, 101
Independent Elements	101, 102
Kinds of	7
Simple	8
Complex	9
Compound	9
Declarative	7
Interrogative	8
Imperative	8
Exclamatory	8
Sentence, The	128–131
Order of	128
Correlatives Misplaced	133
Improper Ellipses . .	134, 135
Modifiers Misplaced	131, 132
Pronoun and Ante-	
cedent	133, 134
Sentence, The	121
Transformation of . .	121–127
Syntax, Rules of	141–150
Self-Reliance	185
Such—So	179
Sure	179
Since—Ago	180

Stay — Stop	180	Upon — On	182
Set — Sit	180	Victory in Defeat	186
Shall — Will	180	Varied Use of Words	80-82
Storm	181	Verbals	48-51
Scarcely — Hardly	181	Verbs	39-42, 46, 220
Seldom or ever	181	Complete	39
Superfluous Words	181	Incomplete	39
Technical Grammar	225	Transitive	39
The Memory of Wash- ington	185	Intransitive	40
The Garret of the Gam- brel-Roofed House	191	Copulative	40
The Van Tassel House	192	Regular	40
The Flower of Liberty	194	Irregular	41
The Blue Jays	196	Verb-Phrases	46-48
The Birthday of Wash- ington	203	Progressive	46
Tense	52, 53	Emphatic	46
Think — Believe	181	Active	47
Take on	182	Passive	47
Take up school	182	Potential	47
They, their, them	182	Conditional	47
This, that—these, those	182	Parsing of	65-67
That of	182	Auxiliary	41, 54-56
Try — Make	182	Conjugation	57
Tantalize	182	Conjugation of <i>Be</i>	57, 58
Taste of	182	Forms of <i>Give</i>	59, 60
Transpire — Happen	182	List of Irregular	61-64
		Whole of	183
		With — By	183
		What — That	183

18

18

30-3

8-51

220

39

39

39

40

46

40

41

45

6

6

7

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